DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 477 968 CG 032 432

AUTHOR	Littleton, Roosevelt
TITLE	Understanding and Retaining Underprepared College Students.
PUB DATE	2000-05-00
NOTE	112p.
PUB TYPE	Information Analyses (070)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS
DESCRIPTORS	*Adult Students; *Blacks; College Students; Cultural Influences; *Educationally Disadvantaged; Higher Education; Minority Groups; Psychosocial Development; School Holding Power; *Student Development; *Student Needs; Student Personnel Services; Theory Practice Relationship

ABSTRACT

A review of the literature suggested that African-American and minority students bring a diverse culture to "traditional" college life. As a result, many institutions of higher learning designed their student services, student support programs, curricular and extracurricular to meet the special nature and needs of its minority student population. An effective means of addressing minority student needs is to acknowledge the psychosocial factors related to their development. Those responsible for teaching and helping Black students must create models of adult and student development that take into account the unique needs and experiences that Black students bring to the campus. Many "traditional" models failed to define factors that promote the Black students' overall psychosocial development. Many adult development theories failed to acknowledge the cultural-race aspect of development. This study attempts to summarize and discuss the conceptualized theories that are pertinent to the psychosocial development of cultural Black adult students. The research of several Black theorists investigated the issues and factors of psychosocial development of Black adults. Their research efforts have provided alternative models and theories for addressing the development needs of Black college students. (Contains 202 references and 2 tables.) (Author)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

ED 477 968

Understanding and Retaining Underprepared College Students

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☐ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE, AND IN ELECTRONIC MEDIA FOR ERIC COLLECTION SUBSCRIBERS ONLY, HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

R. LITTLETON

2A TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

By

Dr. Roosevelt Littleton, Jr.

CG032432

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Abstract

Understanding and Retaining Underprepared College Students

By

Dr. Roosevelt Littleton, Jr.

A review of the literature suggested that African-American and minority students bring a diverse culture to "traditional" college life. As a result, many institutions of higher learning designed their student services, student support programs, curricular and extracurricular to meet the special nature and needs of its minority student population. An effective means of addressing minority student needs is to acknowledge the psychosocial factors related to their development.

Those responsible for teaching and helping Black students must create models of adult and student development that take into account the unique needs and experiences that Black students bring to the campus. Many "traditional" models failed to define factors that promote the Black students' overall psychosocial development. Many adult development theories failed to acknowledge the cultural-race aspect of development,

This study attempts to summarize and discuss the conceptualized theories that are pertinent to the psychosocial development of cultural Black adult students. The research of several Black theorists investigated the issues and factors of psychosocial development of Black adults. Their research efforts have provided alternative models and theories for addressing the development needs of Black college student.

Please address all correspondence to:

Dr. Roosevelt Littleton, Jr.
P. O. Box 166676
Jackson, MS 39286
E-mail: rooseveltl@hotmail.com

Table of Contents

	Page
Chapter I - Introduction	1
Chapter II - The History of Student Development	8
The History of Black Student Development	10
Chapter III - Traditional Adult Development Theories	22
Chapter IV - Black Adult Development Theories	37
Black Male Adult Development	38
Black Female Adult Development	48
Group - Black Adult Development	52
Chapter V - Afrocentricity: The missing task in Black adult development?	63
Psychosocial Tasks	65
Bicultural Socialization and the Afrocentric paradigm	74
Chapter VI - Facilitating the nature and needs of Black College students	83
Facilitating the nature and needs of underprepared college students	85
The Role and Purpose of Developmental Education	95
Chapter VII-Summary	102

Chapter I

Introduction

The psychosocial development of Black adult college students is an important issue that merits special attention. The dropout rate for Black students in college is especially high. Because of the concentration that colleges place on research, marginal attention to the issue of Black adult development is evident. Very little attention has been given to the development process by which Black students become scholars and the psychosocial factors that influence those development processes (Valentine, 1987).

One of the vital challenges faced by adult students is their psychosocial adjustment to college life. Black adult students are significantly older compared to the traditional college students who are 18 to 25 years of age. Black adult students possess a different level of motivation, psychological development, academic preparedness, life experiences and commitment, thereby, creating a different subculture within the college environment (Brazziel and Brazziel, 1987; Willie, Grady and Hope, 1991).

The nature and needs of Black students vary and require unique responses from college policy makers and personnel. Black students' adjustment to academic life has generally been overlooked as a topic of professional writings (Beeler, 1991). Little quantitative research has been done regarding the differences of psychosocial needs of various ethnic groups within the college student population. Although most campuses are culturally diverse, it appears reasonable to expect a variety of problems and needs to exist (Terrell, 1990).

An unsupportive college environment often contributes to Black students' lower satisfaction with college and may result in premature exits from college (Fleming, 1984). Wright (1987) maintained that college students placed in an environment that fails to acknowledge or address their needs and concerns often experience social isolation, loneliness and alienation. Intervention services at many institutions are often targeted for the specific developmental tasks of the "traditional" students. The common developmental tasks (Intimacy, Generativity and Ego-Integrity) of older nontraditional students often go unaddressed on many college campuses (Miller and Winston, 1990). Such environments may impede Black students' chances of completing their programs of study.

Black college students are not a homogeneous population. They have diverse social, cultural, and economic backgrounds; these differences are often not appreciated or acknowledge by faculty, staff and students. Some students may be the first in their families to attend college, while others may have college educated parents. Black students hail from rural and urban environments, foreign countries, racially segregated or integrated communities, military installations, and suburban areas (Pounds, 1987).

A review of the literature lists a number of social, economical and cultural factors attributing to Black students' discontent with college. Many adult students are unprepared for college because of deficient learning skills and study habits. Another important factor relevant to adult Black students rejection of college is money. In the 1960s and 1970s, colleges were able to attract Black students through lucrative government funding programs and academic support agencies. The ultra-conservative economic policies of the Reagan-Bush-Bush era "dramatically" reduced financial aid programs in the 1980s, 1990s, and

2000's. As a result many Black students from low income backgrounds were denied a college education.

Because of the rising cost of higher education and uncertain economic climate, many Black students do not see college as "a guarantee to success." A disproportionate number of Black college graduates occupy the unemployment pool along with their blue collar counterparts. Many Black college students have chosen to enlist in the military, attend vocational-technical schools, and work several low-wage jobs as alternatives to entering college.

Muench (1987) assessed that men and women adult students experience similar psychosocial conflicts in juggling the roles of worker, parent, spouse, and student. As a result, many graduate students attend college on a part-time basis. Cross (1981) concluded that students attending college on a part-time basis often experience conflict and frustration due to their multiple commitments (marriage and employment). Chickering (1981) noted that returning to school often causes problems in the established relationships of women, even disrupting marriages in a significant proportion of cases. Married students returning to college are often burdened with the disruption of family patterns, career and social activities (Washington et al., 1990).

Graduate school educators have come to recognize the attrition of minority students from doctoral programs as a major problem necessitating special attention (Morris, 1992). Green (1974) reported that the first African-American scholar to earn the doctorate degree was Edward Bouchet (1876, Ph.D. in Physics, Yale University). Others that followed include J.W.E. Bowen (1887, Ph.D. in Religion, Boston University) and Alfred O. Coffin

(1889, Ph.D. in Biological Science, Illinois Wesleyan University). Despite the gains in numbers of Black doctoral graduates in the late 1970's and mid 1980's, current data indicate that the number of Blacks participating in graduate programs have declined. This decline has been at two levels: enrollment and graduation. The National Center for Education Statistics (1999) reported that of the 45,394 Ph.D.'s granted in 1999, only 786 (less than 4.3 percent) were awarded to Black men, and only 1,061 (just over 6.8 percent) were awarded to Black women.

Fleming (1984) noted that the student's intellectual development occurs in conjunction with personal and social growth (psychosocial development). Minority students enrolled in collegiate programs may encounter a variety of unresolved developmental tasks and issues (Payne and Sulley, 1992). Psychosocial development can be utilized as a conceptual framework in identifying the developmental tasks and issues of culturally diverse students (Miller and Winston, 1990). This knowledge helps to understand stages of growth through the life span, periods of transition and stability, struggles with identity and Intimacy, paths to maturity, adaptive patterns in normal living, and quality of environments which promote development (Wright, 1987). Conceptually, psychosocial development can be utilized to develop approaches that address the nature and needs of nontraditional students.

Students who leave a university because of negative experiences relay those experiences, thereby creating a negative reputation for the university. Effective student development gives students the impression that the university is a place where faculty, staff, and administrators care. By combining the transfer of academic skills, attitudes, and behaviors with a level of interaction, trust and communication, an atmosphere of

psychosocial comfort is created (Pascarella, 1985). Psychosocial comfort empowers a student with the knowledge and confidence to grow academically and socially, regardless of the environment. If this growth occurs, the student will be more likely to remain at the university until graduation, thus, facilitating the need of the university to address the problem of attrition

Educational institutions have a vested interest in enrolling and retaining minority students in college. As the number of traditional students continues to dwindle, minorities and women are filling the spaces left vacant by a diminishing traditional aged student population. As a result, many colleges are challenged to find innovative student-support programs and services in which nontraditional students can matriculate and graduate. By focusing on the developmental tasks of nontraditional students, colleges enhance the students' survival chances, as well as the college's survival chances (St. Pierre, 1987; Wright, 1987; Glass & Rose, 1988; Schlossberg, Lynch, and Chickering, 1989; Terrell, 1990; and Caffarella & Olson, 1993).

References

Beeler, K. D. (1991). Graduate student adjustment to academic life: A four-stage framework. NASPA Journal, 28(2), 163-171.

Brazziel, M. & Brazziel, W. F. (1987). Impact of support for graduate study on program completion of Black doctorate recipients. Journal of Negro Education, 56 (2), 145-152.

Caffarella, R. S. and Olson, S. K. (1993). Psychosocial development of women: A critical review of the literature. Adult Education Quarterly,43(3), 125-151.

Chickering, A. W. (1981). The modern American college. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Cross, K. P. (1981). Adults as learners. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Fleming, J. (1984). Blacks in college. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Glass, J. C., and Rose, A. E. (1988). Reentry women: A growing and unique college population. NASPA Journal, 25(3), 110-119.

Miller, T. K. & Winston, R. B. (1990). Assessing development from a psychosocial perspective. In D. G.Creamer (Ed.) Administrative and management theories: Tools for change. Atlanta, GA: Accelerated Development, Inc.

Morris, F. L. (1992). Who gets the graduate support? Black Issues in Higher Education 9(10),55-60.

Muench, K. E. (1987, October). A comparative study of the psychological needs of adult men and women in an adult degree program. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education, Washington, DC.

National Center for Education Statistics. (1999). U. S. Department of Education. The condition of education, 1999, (3). Post secondary education. Washington, DC.

Pascarella, E. T. (1985). Students affective development within thecollege

environment. Journal of Higher Education, 56 (6), 641-663.

Payne, B. D. and Sulley, B. A. (1992). Traditional vs non-traditional students: A new era. National Forum of Applied Educational Research Journal, 6(1), 68-74.

Pounds, A. W. (1987). Black Students' needs on predominantly White campuses. In D. J. Wright (Ed.)Responding to the needs of today's minority students. New Directions for Student Services (No. 38) San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Schlossberg, N. K., Lynch, A. Q. and Chickering, A. W. (1989). Improving higher education environment for adults. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

St. Pierre, S. (1987). Understanding the nontraditional female student. NASPA Journal, 24(1), 227-234.

Terrell, P. S. (1990). Adapting institutions of higher education to serve adult students' needs. NASPA Journal, 27(3), 241-247.

Valentine, N. L. (1987). Factors related to attrition from doctor of education programs. Paper presented at the National Meeting of the Association for Institutional Research. Kansas City, MO. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. - ED 293 447).

Washington, W., Goddard, R. W., and Newman, I. (1990). Pre-doctoral syndrome: Study of educational administration graduates. Paper presented at Midwestern Education Research Association, Chicago, IL. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. - ED 326 091).

Willie, C. V., Grady, M. K.and Hope, R. O. (1991). African-Americans and the doctoral experience. New York: Teachers College Press.

Wright, D. J. (1987). Minority students: Developmental beginnings. In D. J. Wright (Ed.), Responding to the needs of today's minority students. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass..

Chapter II

The History of Student Development

Total student development is an important component in the effectiveness with which college personnel can perform its role. Due to the contemporary emphasis on specialization, academic personnel have sometimes been criticized for neglecting other personality traits of students while concentrating on their intellectual development. Both personal development and intellectual development should be the concern of student development personnel (Eddy et al., 1980).

Over the past twenty years, the complexion of America's institutions of higher learning has become increasingly more culturally diverse (Terrell, 1990). By the year 2010, the US Census Bureau reports predict that Blacks, Hispanics, and women will make up 70% of America's college student body. As a result, many universities and colleges are wisely shifting their student development policies to embrace the idealogies of their "nontraditional" students (Hughes, 1982).

Miller and Prince (1976) contended that "colleges exist basically for one purpose", that of providing opportunity for student learning through instruction in various descriptions and locations. Educators today support the idea that all facets of college life are important and that administrators and college personnel should continue to maintain diverse student-support services and programs supplemented by various extra-curricular activities on campus. A total student development perspective is based on the importance of roles of higher education in transmitting knowledge in an environment conducive to ample learning (Eddy, Peterson and Pitts, 1980).

The rise of the student development movement came about largely due to: the secularization of education; the application of psychological research to problem-solving; the work of Thorndike, Cattell, and others during and after World War I, the increases in student population; and the attacks upon the intellectualistic impersonalism of American Ph.D. recipients trained in Germany (Delworth, Hanson, etc., 1985). Other factors such as the passage of the 1862 Morrill Land Grant College Act, the inclusion of female and minority students, and the elective system are also considered contributors to the field of student development (Eddy et al., 1980).

In 1937, the American Council on Education articulated four basic assumptions that formulated the current concepts of student development. Those assumptions included: "(a) that all facets of the individual student, rather than a single attribute such as intellect, must be considered; (b) that each student is recognized as unique with unique needs and must be treated as an individual; (c) that the total environment of the student is educational and must be utilized to teach the fullest development; and (d) that the major responsibility for a student's personal, social development rests with the student and his or her personal resources" (Miller & Prince, 1976)

Rippey (1981) ascertained that a holistic concept existed prior to 1937. In 1918, the Seven Cardinal principles of education stated the importance of developing areas of education beyond subject competency. Those principles included: (a) command of fundamental processes; (b) worthy home membership; (c) vocational efficiency; (d) citizenship; (e) worthy use of leisure; (f) ethical character; and (g) health. These principles combined with those of Miller's, that were outlined, illustrate the foundations

of the student development concept" (p.11).

The foundation for the present system of student development was established during the late 1700s. As college enrollments continue to increase in size and diversity, concerns for "traditional" student development must expand to include other aspects of the students' development. Those aspects included (a) student character, (b) psychosocial nature and needs, (c) health, (d) school environment and (e) social responsibility. In addition, the rise of student development can be attributed to the secularization of education, the vocational guidance movement, psychological testing, and increasingly culturally diverse student populations.

The History of Black Student Development

Since the colonial period Black education evolved within a social system which denied the rights of citizenship, electoral participation, and economic profit. This system of education was designed to dwarf the growth of Black Americans both socially politically,and most importantly economically. By maintaining an illiterate Black workforce, racist White southerners were able to maintain economic domination, by keeping operational expenses low and employees dependent on cheap wages. As a result Blacks fought against compulsory ignorance during enslavement and unequal educational opportunities afterwards in order to gain a means of social and economic advancement (Anderson, 1988).

Until the 1960s, HBCUs were almost the exclusive avenue of access to higher education for Black students. With their open-door policies, HBCUs took in the best prepared students as well as many who would not have been readily admitted to any

college. By disregarding customary admissions criteria, HBCUs were able to successfully educate Black students in defiance of the predicative validity of traditional standardized tests. The most important contributions of Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) have been and continue to be in five areas: (a) the overall production of Black degree recipients throughout higher education; (b) the production of Black degree recipients in major fields and careers where Blacks are least represented (e.g., the natural and technical sciences and the professions); (c) the retention and more timely matriculation (i.e., completion within 4 years) of Black students; (d) the provision of psychosocial support and cultural congruency for Black students; and (e) the provision of second or third chance for low income, "academically marginal," and "high risk students to obtain a higher education (Thomas and Hill, 1987, p.499).

The Role of the Church

Following the Revolutionary War (1783), freed Blacks established African churches, African private schools, and African fraternal organizations to worship, educate their children, and protect themselves. In 1866 a number of these schools were founded by freed Blacks, and some civic minded Whites. A few African schools were integrated, and several received White financial support (Roebuck and Murty, 1993). These African institutions provided a sense of identity as well as a means of advancement for Black youth and adults (Frazier, 1957; Anderson, 1988).

Northern missionary groups took the first steps toward developing a formal system of schools and colleges for Blacks. Baptists, Methodists, Presbyterians, and Episcopalians established twenty secondary schools and colleges. Black religious

denominations also established a number of colleges (Frazier, 1957; Anderson, 1988). Following the lead of the American Missionary Association (AMA) in 1861, several benevolent societies sent missionaries into the South to uplift enslaved Blacks and their youth through religion, education, and material assistance (Roebuck and Murty, 1993, p. 23). Although missionaries competed among themselves in organizing classroom instruction and curriculums, the colleges faced added pressures from racist White southerners to limit on the focus of Black education to vocational education (p. 24).

The Role of Self-Reliance

Beginning with the Civil War and continuing through Reconstruction, Black education became a national public policy issue. It was only after the Civil War that a national educational policy was implemented throughout the defeated South. The Freedmen's Bureau, northern missionary societies, and Blacks laid the foundation for the majority of Black colleges and universities.

Blacks made concentrated efforts to educate themselves, despite the opposition of White racists. Barred from White schools in the 1860's Black adults and children enthusiastically attended the African schools. When schools were available, they operated during very short academic terms. Blacks were forced to walk long miles to school, use old books and engage in self-study (Frazier, 1957; Anderson, 1988; and Roebuck and Murty, 1993).

In 1866, Blacks formed a network of so-called Sabbath schools (also called African schools like their earlier counterparts in the North) which were in session throughout the week. The classes met in church basements, private homes, warehouses,

pool rooms, and shacks(Foner, 1988; Roebuck and Murty, 1993). The Sabbath school systems were largely Black dominated, relied on local Black communities for support, and generally had all-Black teaching staffs. The importance of the Sabbath schools varied across states and localities. In some areas they constituted the only viable system of free instruction.

Toward the end of the 19th century, Black leaders and educators adopted the New England classical liberal curriculum. The subjects taught in Black elementary, normal, and collegiate schools were comparable to northern White schools. Elementary school students received instruction in reading, spelling, writing, grammar, diction, history, geography, mathematics, and music. Normal school students utilized the standard English curriculum with additional courses in teacher education, orthography, map drawing, physiology, algebra, and geometry. The college curriculum varied slightly among institutions, most required Latin, Greek, mathematics, science, philosophy, and a modern language (Frazier, 1957; Anderson, 1988).

Education, religion, and property were the primary means for Blacks to gain personal respect, economic security, and racial progress. Blacks formed societies and raised money as craftsmen and laborers to establish their private schools. Blacks purchased land, built schoolhouses, and employed school personnel. In 1869, 3,000 schools served over 150,000 students, excluding numerous evening and private schools operated by Blacks and missionaries. In 1870, Blacks expended over $1 million on private school education (Foner, 1988; Roebuck and Murty, 1993). In 1870, the Freedmen's bureau operated 4,239 schools with 9,300 teachers and 247,000 pupils. The

Freedmen's Bureau, established in 1865, expended $5 million on Black education by 1871 (Berry and Blassingame, 1982).

The short-range goal for educating Blacks was to provide basic literacy skills and citizenship training to the masses. The long-range purpose was to develop the intellectual, moral and leadership talents of the masses and orchestrate an agenda for the future. Blacks pursued these goals in opposition to racist White southerners. Despite overwhelming opposition the mass majority of Black Americans persisted in becoming literate. The illiteracy rate was 95 percent in 1860 , 70 percent in 1880, and 30 percent by 1910 (Anderson, 1988).

The Role of the Federal government

The patterns of Black education were established through federal Reconstruction legislation and the activities of the local Reconstruction governments. Additional federal intervention ensured the expansion of educational, economic, social and political opportunities for freed Blacks during Reconstruction. This process was augmented by the 1866 & 1875 Civil Rights Acts and radical Reconstruction programs. By 1869, there were seventy-nine northern aid societies supporting Black schools in the South.

The public HBCUs were created by the southern state governments for three reasons: to get millions of dollars in federal funds for the development of White land-grant universities, to limit Black education to vocational training, and to prevent Blacks from attending White land-grant colleges (Frazier, 1957; Roebuck and Murty, 1993). In order to prevent continued discrimination against Blacks in public higher education, the federal government enacted the 1890 Morrill Act, which mandated that all states provide

separate educational facilities for Blacks or admit them to existing colleges. Southern and border states opted to establish "separate but equal" agricultural and industrial schools for Blacks and land grant colleges for Whites. Few Blacks attended and graduated from White universities, HBCUs provided the major source of higher education for Blacks during this period. By 1895 HBCUs turned out 1,100 college graduates. (Frazier, 1957; Roebuck and Marty, 1993).

Despite the victimization of Black colleges, HBCUs continue to contribute significantly to the education of African Americans, and they have survived and thrived in their mission to educate. HBCUs contributed successfully to society, by assuming two enormous tasks. By helping the Black masses adjust personally and socially to the mainstream cultural norms. And secondly, producing an enterprising class of Blacks to serve as leaders and models of economic success.

In an attempt to accomplish these tasks, Black colleges focused emphasis on their counseling and student development services. These services remain a top priority in Black institutions. Student development programs at Black colleges provided an opportunity for students to gain knowledge about surviving socially and intellectually in a multicultural society. Counseling included teaching, tutoring, and academic advisement (Traylor, 1983).

Tracing the history of formalized counseling and student development in Black colleges, Traylor's study suggested that these services in these institutions began between 1946 and 1948. Counseling services were motivated and influenced by concerns to meet the needs of Black World War II veterans. Problems emphasized as requiring

guidance included education, occupational adjustment, health, and personality. Overall Black colleges were charged with the responsibility of setting up guidance services for Black veterans.

Focusing on the issues, concerns, nature and needs of the Black students, HBCUs foster a comprehensive philosophy on the principles and practices of student development services. Philosophically, HBCUs subscribe to the concept that the individual should be responsible for his/her own personal growth. The individual's growth, however, is influenced by his/her environment. The college as a vital part of the students' environment must design structured experiences that would allow the student to develop in a positive manner.

Major student development theories failed to give adequate consideration to Blacks. Most student development programs, techniques, and theories were based on White middle-class values and experiences without regard to the special nuances that were peculiar to the Black experience. With an increased awareness and interest in the Black experience, many Black student service professionals have formed Black educational organizations to address the needs of Black students (Traylor, 1983, p.4). One such organization is the National Association of Student Affairs Professionals (NASAP).

Summary

One way of responding to the needs of Black college students is to expand the paradigms of psychosocial development theories to include the experiences of African-Americans (McEwen et al., 1990). Often, the psychosocial climate of a university has a

tremendous affect on students, especially those from culturally diverse backgrounds (Gavin, 1989). Merriam and Caffarella (1991) described nontraditional students as those who return to college "later" in life. Nontraditional students are recognized as women, minorities, parents over 30 years of age, full-time White-collar employees earning middle-class salaries, and residents of urbanized areas.

Minority students returning to college during their "later" years often experience an array of psychosocial conflicts and needs (Hughes, 1982; Glass, Rose, 1986; St. Pierre,1987; and Terrell, 1990). Most returning students are independent, motivated, responsible, practical, self-directed and learning-focused (Payne and Sulley, 1992). However, a number of students experience a lack of self-confidence, role conflict, fear of inferiority or isolation, fear of taking risks, feelings of dependency, and a lack of identity (Muench, 1987). Also, students face financial and time constraints that add to their psychosocial needs. Many students have given up full-time jobs in order to complete their program of study. Further, a growing number of students have commitments to children and family (Terrell, 1990).

Psychosocial development focuses more on what one thinks and the associated behavioral consequences that reflect one's cultural experiences and the effects of age and sex (Mable, 1980). Specifically, this knowledge helps in understanding the strengths that Black students bring to the campus, understanding the influence of various life situations (e.g., family, work, sex and race) on the educational/development process (Cheatham, et al., 1990) and understanding the qualities of environment which promote development (Creamer, 1983). Without these important interactions, psychosocial development would

not occur. It is the stimuli and challenges that result from these interactions that bring about change or growth (Creamer, 1990). In addition, by understanding the specific psychosocial needs of Black students, college personnel are able to provide the proper delivery and intervention services which promote development.

As Black students become more prevalent at America's institutions of higher learning college administrators must become more aware of their populations. Colleges are challenged to address the diverse needs of various age groups and cultures and to facilitate the appropriate integrated student services. As a result, a growing number of colleges have implemented theoretical-based services and programs to address the tasks and issues of their culturally diverse student populations.

References

Anderson, J. D. (1988). The education of Blacks in the south, 1860-1935. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press.

Berry, M. F., & Blassingame, J. W. (1982). Long memory: The Black experience in America. New York: Oxford University Press.101-107.

Cheatham, H. E. & Slaney, R. B. (1990). Institutional effects on the psychosocial development of African-American college students. Journal of Counseling Psychology 37 (4), 453-458.

Creamer, D. G. (1983). Are we ready to apply adult development knowledge in student affairs? Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University: Blackbury, VA (ERIC Document Reproduction
Service No.- ED 261 321).

Creamer, D. G. (1990). Administrative and management theories: Tools for change. Atlanta, GA: Accelerated Development, Inc.

Delworth, U., Hanson, G. R. and Associates (1985). Student services: A handbook for the profession. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass .

Eddy, J., Peterson, W. D., and Pitts, G. D. (1980). Historical perspectives of college student personnel. In R. Daniels (Ed.), College student personnel development administration, and counseling. Washington, DC: University Press of America.

Foner, E. (1988). Reconstruction: America's unfinished revolution 1863-1877. New York: Harper & Row Publishers.

Frazier, E. F. (1957). The Black Bourgeois. New York:Millian Publishing Co.

Gavin, J. R. III (1989). Issues and strategies in the retention of minority faculty and staff in higher education in W. E. Ward & M. M. Cross (Eds.) Key issues in minority education, Norman, OK: University of Oklahoma Press.

Glass, J.C. and Rose, A.E. (1988). Reentry women: A growing and unique college population. NASPA Journal, 25, (3), 110-119

Hughes, R. (1982). The nontraditional student in higher education: A synthesis of the literature. NASPA Journal, 17(2), 51-64.

Mable, P. (1980). Student development perspectives and strategies in the assessment of student needs in D. G. Creamers (Ed.) Student development in higher education. Cincinnati, Ohio: American College Personnel Association.

McEwen, M. K., Roper, L. D., Gryant,D.R. & Langa, M. J. (1990). Incorporation of the development of African-American students into psychosocial theories of student development. Journal of College Student Development, 31, 429-436.

Merriam, S. B. & Cafferalla, R. S. (1991). Learning in adulthood. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Inc.

Merriam, S. & Others (1987). Mentoring in higher education: What we don't know. Review of Higher Education, 11, 199-210.

Miller, T. K. & Prince, J. S. (1976). The future of student affairs: A guide to student development for tomorrow's higher education. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Muench, K. E. (1987, October). A comparative study of the psychological needs of adult men and women in an adult degree program. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the America Association for Adult and Continuing Education, Washington, DC.

Payne, B. D. and Sulley, B. A. (1992). Traditional vs non-traditional students: A new era. National Forum of Applied Educational Research Journal, 6(1), 68-74.

.Rippey D. (1981). What is student development? (Report No. JC 810 396). Los Angeles, CA: ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior Colleges.(ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. - ED 207 619).

Roebuck, E. and Murty, S. (1993). Historically Black colleges and universities. New York: MacMillan Publishing Co.

.St. Pierre, S. (1987). Understanding the nontraditional female student. NASPA Journal, 24 (1), 227-234.

Terrell, P. S. (1990). Adapting institutions of higher education to serve adult students' needs, NASPA Journal, 27(3), 241-247.

Thomas, G. E. and Hill, S. (1987). Black institutions in U.S. higher education: Present roles, contribution, future projections. Journal of College Student Personnel, 27 496-503.

Traylor, J. A. G. (1983). A historical study of the National Association of Personnel Workers: An Examination of the efforts of Blacks in the formation and development of student personnel organizations. Dissertation Abstracts, DAI 44-06A: 1699.

Chapter III

Traditional Adult Development Theories

Erikson's theory has laid the groundwork for many concepts of psychosocial thought. Erikson's work utilized Freud's thought about biological determinism and expanded upon it to cover the entire life-span (Delworth, Hanson, etc., 1985 & Rodgers, 1980). Although his theory is complex and general, Erikson's works have been influential in psychology and education.

Erikson (1963) postulated that individuals face a series of psychosocial crises as they attempt to cope with previous unencountered demands and circumstances. Black students' crises arise from their interactions with their environment, the balance of their maturity level and society's expectation of students at that level are important. Thus, the greater the discrepancy between the individual's present behavior and the degree of change that is expected by others, the greater the likelihood that a developmental disturbance will occur (Miller & Prince, 1976).

The way in which the individual resolves the crisis can either enhance or weaken his or her ability to master crises in subsequent stages. Erikson (1963) conceived the concept of growth through the life span as a process of meeting and achieving a series of eight psychosocial tasks, each of which dominates the development of the individual at a certain stage of life. Erikson's (1963) eight major developmental tasks included the following:

1. Early Infancy: Trust versus Mistrust

    (a) Child received affection and need satisfaction.

(b) Child abused or neglected.

2. Later Infancy: Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt

(a) Child encouraged to develop self control and is provided respect by parents.

(b) Child made to feel inadequate and not worthy of respect.

3. Early Childhood: Initiative versus Guilt

(a) Child encouraged to use imagination and test reality on his own.

(b) Child made to feel guilty for his fantasies, which are often sex-related. Reality testing is discouraged.

4. Middle Childhood: Industry versus Inferiority

(a) Child has developed sense of duty and accomplishment.

(b) Child does not value accomplishment. Exhibits sense of failure.

5. Puberty and Adolescence: Ego Identity versus Role Confusion

(a) Individual has now developed a sense of self-concept, a sense of what he is not, can do, and cannot do.

(b) Individual has no real sense of being. Confused about himself and his relation to the world.

6. Early Adulthood: Intimacy versus Isolation

(a) Individual has ability to form close relationships.

(b) Individual remains apart from others. May even be antagonistic toward them.

7. Middle Adulthood: Generativity versus Stagnation

(a) Time of productivity in work and family.

(b) Time of nonproductivity and wandering. No real accomplishments in any area.

8. Late Adulthood: Integrity versus Despair

(a) Approaches state of self-actualization.

(b) Loss of faith in self and others. Fearful of approaching death.

In Erikson's view, out of every acute life crisis also aroused new energies in the person and afforded a new opportunity to rework unresolved critical issues. An important element of his work is the "epigenetic" principle, in which he stated, "Anything that grows has a ground plan, and out of this ground plan the part arises, each part having its time of special ascendancy, until all parts have arisen to form a functioning whole" (Erikson, 1980, p. 79).

Although Erikson devoted only three of eight stages to the adult years, a good deal of his conceptualizing over the past three decades has focused on this time span. Specifically, Erikson postulated that once the crisis of Ego-Identity versus role confusion has been resolved by the late adolescence, the individual must: establish Intimacy with a person of the opposite sex as opposed to remaining isolated during young adulthood; become more productive of creative Generativity in the areas of family relationships or stagnate during maturity: and achieve Ego Integrity by feeling satisfied and happy with one's accomplishments in old age and accepting responsibility for one's own life, as opposed to feelings of despair. Erikson (1982) has broadly outlined psychosocial development.

Erikson's theories delineated eight phases of the life cycle and described the central issues, development crises, tasks, and outcomes for each stage. Although other theorists have focused on psychosocial development, most can be seen as elaborating or expounding on various aspects of Erik Erikson's general philosophy.

Chickering's (1969) theory of student development was an elaboration of Erikson's stages of Identity and Intimacy. Chickering summarized research on "traditional" college students from 13 liberal arts colleges into a theory, which added specificity and concreteness to Erikson's sweeping generalizations about these stages. Chickering's theory covered approximately the 17 to 25 age range and was built mainly from research on undergraduate college students. Chickering (1969) described development in terms of vectors, or developmental tasks, waves of development that predominate at different stages of a young adult's life. Chickering posited that seven vectors of development ascend in the lives of college students. They were: (a) Developing Competence, (b) Managing Emotion, (c) Developing Autonomy, (d) Establishing Identity, (e) Freeing Interpersonal Relationships, (f) Developing Purpose, and (g) Developing Integrity.

According to Chickering (1981), the first three vectors (Developing Competence, Managing Emotions, and Developing Autonomy) tend to ascend simultaneously and before the other four. Chickering further suggested that progress toward the favorable and adequate resolution of these three vectors is necessary before the next vector (Identity) can be undertaken in a productive and healthy way. The Identity vector serves to integrate the first three vectors in terms of sexual orientation, body acceptance, and knowing the kinds of experiences one preferred. In essence, the individual develops an Identity.

The young adult progresses toward a favorable resolution of the vectors as he or she approaches 25 years of age. As a result, many upperclass college students begin to develop a depth of understanding in relationships with significant others, to integrate their career choices and life styles, and to develop a consistency between values and actual behavior. In summary, Chickering's conceptualizations tend to be limited to class and Eurocentric cultural preconceptions of dichotomies and hierarchial structures. Therefore, Chickering's theory is probably more useful in the area of traditional college student development.

Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson and McKee's (1978) study focused on the development of men across cultural and social economic types. From this perspective, the researchers developed a thought-provoking "anatomy of the life cycle," which builds upon and adds to Erikson's stages of Ego development by centering more on the interaction between the self and the external world. Levinson and his colleagues seemed primarily interested in "life structures." A life structure is an underlying pattern of life made up of career, love, relationships, marriage and family, relationships with self, uses of solitude, roles in social context, and relationships with individuals, groups, and institutions. In general, life structures are concerned with relationships between self and the world (Levinson, et al., 1978).

The adult years from ages 17 to post-70 have been the field of study for Levinson and Associates. According to Levinson et al. (1978), this major portion of the male life span is made up of a sequence of transitional periods. Each era is made up of a six- to eight-year period of relative stability, during which the person's life structure is laid down and

developed; then a five year mid-era transition, during which the first structure is altered in response to man's changing developmental needs; and then again another six- to eight-year period of stability and growth.

The primary task of each stable period, according to Levinson, is to build a life structure by first making key choices, then forming a structure around these choices, and finally pursuing goals and values within the new structure. The primary task of each transitional period is to question and to reappraise the existing structure, explore the various possibilities for change within one's self and one's social world, and move towards commitment to the crucial choices which form the basis for a new life structure in the ensuing stable period. Levinson's transitional and stable periods are summarized as the following:

(1) Early Adult Transition. This stage begins in late adolescence and involves moving out of the family home and establishing a sense of identity separate from one's family of origin.

(2) Entering the Adult World. This task of the early twenties necessitates making a tentative commitment to adult roles.

(3) Age 30 Transition. Occurring between ages 28 and 33, this is a critical time of modifying the life structure.

(4) Settling Down. This period occurs in the thirties and is a time of deeper commitments to career and family.

(5) Midlife Transition. Between ages 40 and 45 is another critical period in which men reassess their goals, values, and dreams and may

make dramatic changes in the life structure.

(6) Middle Adulthood. Beginning in the midforties, this is a time of new achievements, stability, and productivity.

Age 50 Transition 51 - 55

Culmination of Middle Adulthood 56 -60

(7) Late Adult Era 61 - 65

Late Adult Transition 70 +

In general, Levinson's transitional and stable periods are in need of substantial study in order to be more informative about the minority male and female life span and adult development process.

The studies of Neugarten (1973), Vaillant (1977), Sheehy (1976), and Gould (1972) have convincing similarity to Levinson's (1978) research concerning age range parameters and descriptions of tasks and transitions. Vaillant's study focused on 95 Harvard college students and their 35-year life experiences. The study focused on life-span maturation, adaptive styles, and external adjustment. Vaillant's (1977) results described both positive and negative profiles on these parameters. Vaillant's unique contribution was his organization of ego-defense mechanisms into a hierarchy of adaptiveness: psychotic mechanisms, immature mechanisms, neurotic mechanisms, and mature mechanisms.

According to Vaillant (1977) anticipated events which occur at the appropriate time in the adult's life cycle rarely reach a critical state. Anticipated events are rehearsed; the grief is eventually resolved; and reconciliation is fulfilled without major psychosocial disturbances. It is only when unexpected life events occur at improper times that they appear

traumatic. The significance of Vaillant's theory reflects his explanation of adult transition through various life stages. The general outline of Erikson's stages was confirmed in Vaillant's study, as well as empirical evidence that unfavorable resolutions in one stage affect adjustment in future stages.

Gould's (1972) study was a cross-sectional investigation of 524 White men and women who were middle-class acquaintances of his colleagues. In Gould's sample, there were 20 subjects in each year from 16 to 33, and 20 subjects for each three-year span from 33 to 60. Gould utilized a survey to collect information concerning adult's changes in sense of time; relationships with friends, children, spouses, and parents; feeling about self, career, and sex; and all major persons in their everyday life with regard to companionship, approval, decision-making, and general influence.

Gould (1975) envisioned the age at which adult life changes occur as the result of an adult's total personality, life-style, and subculture. The manner in which these changes are expressed and resolved diverge considerably from person-to-person, depending on the life event. A conceptualization of Gould's life cycles include:

(1) Leaving the Parents' World (16-22).

(2) Getting into the Adult World (22-28).

(3) Questioning and Reexamination (28-34).

(4) Midlife Decade (35-45).

(5) Reconciliation and Mellowing (43-50).

(6) Stability and Acceptance (50 and over).

Gould ascertained that the primary task of adulthood is to correct some of the

unrealistic idealized images that children carry with them as they mature. "The adult must be able, throughout the stages of one's adult years, to engage in an ongoing confrontation with one's "angry demons" and thus learn to view the world in a more realistic, self-determined way (p.27). In general, Gould's (1975) work provided additional empirical support for the general age parameters which differentiated adult periods of development and contributed unique and specific details to the qualitative differences in adult development on the parameters listed above.

Neugarten (1968) emphasized the need to be concerned with the orderly and sequential changes that occur with the passage of time as individuals move from adolescence through adulthood and old age. Neugarten (1968, 1973) studied 710 persons through interviews and the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) in the 1950's. The study was cross-sectional, and men and women from 40 to 90 years of age participated.

Neugarten (1973) pointed out that the salient issues of adulthood change over time. Youth is considered the time when the ego's major task is confrontation with society, the sorting out of values, and the finding of a "fit" between the self and society. In young adulthood, issues relating to intimacy and parenthood and to meeting the expectations of the work world with its attendant demands for restructuring of roles, values, and sense of self, must be dealt with (Neugarten and Datan, 1973).

According to Neugarten (1973), prominent issues arise related to new family roles during middle age. Those issues include dealing with: the major themes of work, love, time and death; changes in self-concept and identity as one enters in marriage, parenthood and the work force. In old age, issues and concerns shift toward adaptation to career decline,

physical limitations, retirement, widowhood, illness and personal death (p.139). In addition, other concerns include dealing with family reconciliation, personal achievements and failures. In general, Neugarten's study demonstrated that as age advances, there is increasing internal focus, increasing dedication to core values and habit patterns, and a change in time perspective. Neugarten's research represented a comprehensive view of development related to individual timing and variability.

Riegel (1975) organized adult life into six developmental levels. At each level, a sequence of gradual and sudden events is co-determined by inner-biological and outer-physical conditions. Riegel pointed out that in complex family situations different events may occur simultaneously, each having a reciprocal affect on the members involved, resulting in different structural changes. Most often, gradual life changes were triggered by sudden alterations: entering college; starting a new job; enlisting into the military; bearing children; and so forth (Riegel, 1979).

Riegel (1975) concluded that there were two contrasting approaches to the development process. The first viewed the life cycle as a process of gradual development and evolution, a continuous consumption of experiences and information, and de-emphasizing structural reorganizations. Further, Riegel viewed sudden changes as offensive disturbances and disruptions, and crises as unpredictable disturbances that were significant to adult development. According to Riegel, the second approach viewed the life course as progressing through discrete, qualitative leaps and organization of structures, with crises and catastrophes viewed as necessary steps in the process. Riegel's (1975) study drew a distinction between the timing of events that happen to males and those that happen to

females and finds differences in the influences of psychosocial and biophysical factors upon each sex.

Sheehy synthesized some of the ideas of Levinson, Gould, Neugarten, Vaillant and others along with her own insights obtained from interviews with men and women of various cultural backgrounds into a theory of adult development. Specifically, Sheehy's theory incorporated Gould's concept of interior sense of self in relationship to others, Neugarten's and Gould's concepts of proportion of safety to danger, perception of time, and sense of aliveness or stagnation, and Levinson's concepts of marker events, role of mentor, and life dream.

Sheehy taped interviews with a combination of 115 men and women, eighteen to fifty-five years of age, who belonged to America's so called "pacesetter group." The focus of Sheehy's study was to discover what inner changes took place, to compare the developmental rhythms of men and women, and to examine the "predictable crises for couples." From the results, Sheehy generalized the different ways in which individuals and couples carry out their life tasks and develop their unique life-styles, and at which points they become bogged down. Sheehy outlined the stages of adult development as followed:

(1) Pulling Up Roots (18-22).

(2) Trying Twenties (22-28).

(3) Catch 30 (28-32).

(4) Rooting and Extending (32-35).

(5) Deadline Decade (35-45).

(6) Renewal or Resignation (45-50).

Among Sheehy's contributions were descriptions of men's life pattens (transients, lock-in, wunderkind, never-married men, paranurturers, latency boys, and integrators) and women's life patterns (caregiver, nurturer who defers achievement, achievers who defer nurturing, integrators, never-married women and transients). Sheehy (1976) popularized the idea of growth and development in adulthood. In addition to synthesizing the research findings of Levinson, Gould, and others, Sheehy's most noteworthy contribution was the attention given to both female and male development.

Heath (1980) posited that student development occurred in dimensions similar to Chickering's vectors of development. Heath proposed a developmental model described as a maturing system. Heath classified the system of development into five interdependent dimensions which occurred in four principal life sectors. The five dimensions of maturing include: (a) Symbolization-the ability to express one's self in words, numbers, picture, music and gestures, (b) Allocentrism-the process of understanding others, (c) Integration-the heightening of cognitive skills, (d) Stability-maintaining cognitive efficiency during stressful events, and (e) Autonomy-achieving independence and self-control (p. 392).

According to Heath, maturing along each developmental dimension occurred in four "self system" sectors: cognitive skills, values, self-concept, and interpersonal relations. In essence, the focus of Heath's model of development centered upon acquiring maturity. Maturing was envisioned as an organismic, systemic, reciprocal and unending process. Heath's theory posited that the development of maturity is caused by disruptions in the life cycle. Maturity occurs as the individual is able to review, reflect, and resolve life disturbances and conflicts. Additionally, Heath concluded that maturation development was

sequential and timely.

Summary

The preceding literature has provided an overview of the adult development and psychological development theories pertaining to the development of traditional adult students. Traditional theories which have addressed the challenges and resolutions of adult intra personal issues (Erikson, Vaillant, Gould, Chickering, Levinson) and the sequencing of life stages and individual outcomes (Vaillant, Riegel, Sheehy, Heath and Neugarten) have not reflected the nature and needs of the Black adult.

Although many traditional theorists have addressed the challenges and resolutions of psychosocial development, their research was Eurocentric in nature. While traditional developmental theories appear sound, logical and based in empirical evidence, they have shortcomings. The shortcomings do not undercut the legitimacy of these theories; however, these theories fail to address the types of developmental tasks faced by members of an increasingly culturally diverse college population.

References

Chickering, A. W. (1969). Education and identity. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Chickering, A. W. (1981). The modern American college. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Delworth, U., Hanson, G. R. and Associates (1985). Student services: A handbook for the profession. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

Erikson, E. H. (1963). Childhood and society. New York, NY: W. W. Norten.

Erikson, E. H. (1963). Generativity and ego integrity. In B. L. Neugarten (Ed.) Middle age and aging: A reader in social psychology. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Erikson, E. H. (1980). Identity and the life cycle. New York, NY: W. W. Norten, 103-105.

Erikson, E. (1982). The life cycle completed. New York, NY: W. W. Norten & Co., Inc.

Gould, R. L. (1972). The phases of adult life: A study in developmental psychology. American Journal of Psychology, 129 (5), 521-531.

Gould, R. L. (1975). Adult life stages: Growth toward self tolerance. Psychology Today, 8 (9), 74 -78.

Heath, D. H. (1980). Wanted: A comprehensive model of healthy development. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 58(5), 391-399.

Levinson, D. J., Darrow, C. N., Klein, E. B., Levinson, M. H., and McKee, B. (1978). The season of a man's life. New York, NY: Knopf.

Miller, T. K. & Prince, J. S. (1976). The future of student affairs: A guide to student development for tomorrow's higher education. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Neugarten, R. L. (1968). Adult personality: Toward a psychology of the life cycle. in R. L.Neugarten (Ed.) Middle age and aging. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Neugarten R. L. (Ed.) (1973). Middle age and aging. A reader in social psychology. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Neugarten R. L. and Datan, N. (1973). Sociological Perspective in the life cycle. in Baltes and Schaie's Life-span development psychology. 56-59.

Riegel, K. F. (1975). Adult life crises: A dialectic interpretation of development in N. Datin and L. H. Ginsberg (Ed.) Life-span developmental psychology. New York, NY: Academic Press, 107.

Riegel, K. F. (1979). Foundations of dialectical psychology. New York, NY: Academic Press.

Rodgers, R. F. (1980). Theories underlying student development. In Creamer, D. G. (Ed.) Student development in higher education. Cincinnati, Ohio: American College Personnel Association.

Sheehy, G. (1976). Passages: Predictable causes of adult life. New York, NY: E. F. Dutton.

Vaillant, G. E. (1977). Adaption of life: How the best and brightest came of age. Boston, MA: Little Brown.

Chapter IV

Black Adult Development Theories

African-American students at many colleges are heterogeneous and diverse due to demographic, social and technological changes (Blackwell, 1981). Their needs cover a wide range as a result of the diversity. Black adult development is extremely important because of the student constituency served. Student development theories, student-support programs, curricular and extracurricular, should be designed to meet the special needs of nontraditional groups (Hughes, 1982 and Schlossberg et al., 1989). A review of current literature suggests that the majority of African-American adult development literature centers on (a) racial awareness or racial identity development; (b) career choices and decidedness; and most importantly (c) academic and social development (Cheatham et al., 1990). These factors, crucial for psychosocial development, provide a means for studying the development of African-American adult students.

Chickering and Associates (1981) noted every college and university in the country (whether public or private, 2-year or 4-year, or graduate) are in the business of shaping lives, lives that reflect much more than academic learning. McEwen, Roper, Bryan, and Langa (1990) noted that those responsible for teaching and helping Black students must create models of human and student development that take into account the unique needs and experiences that Black students bring to the college campus. Many issues specific to the African-American adult development are not inclusive in traditional adult development

theories.

While different in form and content, traditional development theories have stressed the sense of change and adaptation over the adult years. Chickering (1981) and D. Heath (1980) represent those who have advanced their theories on "traditional" students. The recent collection of adult development theories were led by Levinson et al. (1978), Gould (1972, 1975), Riegel (1973), Valliant (1977), Sheehy (1976), and Neugarten (1969). Erikson is considered the unquestionable innovator of the field.

In contrast to theorists who proposed the utilization of "traditional" models of psychosocial development, nontraditional theorists (Gooden, 1980; Murray, 1982; Branch-Simpson, 1985; Clay, 1985; Jeffries, 1985; Ruffin, 1985; Bowman, 1989; Herbert, 1989; Simmons, 1990; Harris, 1992; Crawley and Freeman, 1993; Littleton, 1997; Jones, 1996; and Hill-Traynham, 2000) suggested the conceptualization of different models to identify the unique characteristics of psychosocial development for culturally diverse Black adults. Although a number of "nontraditional" theorists proposed cultural-centric theories, several have incorporated segments of various "traditional" theory models. The following section discusses and reviews nontraditional theories of Black adult development.

Black Male Adult Development

Gooden's (1980) study described the developmental stages of Black males in their early adult years, from adolescence to midlife transition. Particular attention was focused on the formation and development of elements of the life structure such as dreams, mentor relationships, marriage or family and occupation. The study takes Levinson, et al.'s (1978)

approach that sees adult development as the evolution of a life structure through successive age-linked periods, alternately structure building and transitional, each having a set of tasks which are critical to development during that period.

Gooden's (1980) research sought to explore several theories: (1) Does Levinson's age-linked periods hold for Blacks? (2) Are specific concepts such as the Dream, Mentors, and Becoming Ones Own Man relevant or applicable to these Black men? (3) What are the differences between the three socio-economic groups in the sample in terms of adult development? and (4) How do ethnic issues interact with developmental tasks and how do these Black men deal with such issues?

Gooden's study sample consisted of fifteen Black men between the ages of forth and fifty-three. An open-ended, non-schedule style was used. Interviews were recorded and later biographical interviews were developed from the recordings. The sequence of age linked periods found by Levinson et al. (1978) in his predominantly White male sample appeared also in the lives of the Black participants with some variation in age. Only a few of the men formed dreams in their late teens or twenties. Most of the men who formed dreams were unable to integrate these dreams into their lives and gave up their dreams. Gooden's research suggested that very few men had mentors and so were deprived of their help in forming occupation and making real their dreams.

Gooden (1980) concluded that the majority of the men had difficulties in their late thirties achieving advancement and affirmation. He states, "This difficulty as well as the lack of mentoring seems related to a theme of deprivation that is part of being Black in the U.S. Several men felt their lives were limited because they were Black. Gooden found the

"seasons" theory quite useful in approaching the broad and difficult topic of adult development of Black men. The Season Theory evokes a retrospective look at the early adult years of the participants and gain some understanding of the process by which they moved from childhood and adolescence into early adulthood.

The purpose of Murray's (1982) study was to provide information about the mid-life experiences and adult development of Black males. Murray's (1982) study addressed three questions: (1) What are the major concerns of middle class Black men at mid-life? (2) What impact has racism had on Black men's lives and their adult development? (3) How applicable are the current theories of adult development to Black men?

Murray's research sample consisted of 100 middle class Black men between the ages of 35 and 45. The study utilized surveys and intensive interviews as data sources. The findings of Murray's study concluded that successful Black men had stable careers and family relationships. The men's lives evolved through similar age-linked periods as Levinson et al.'s (1978) sample of predominantly White men.

The majority of the men reported having dreams that were vague and focused on family and financial security. A little over half of them reported having mentor relationships. Men with mentors, regardless of the mentor's race, reported being dissatisfied with their career advancements significantly more often than men who did not have mentors. Men who reported positive racial experiences reported having better relationships with their children and rated their sexual performance as good significantly more often than men with negative racial themes.

Murray employed the theories of Vaillant (1977), Gould (1978) and Levinson et al.

(1978) as theory bases for researching the adult development of this population. Murray's (1982) study found various aspects to be applicable to isolated concepts in the theories of Valliant, Gould and Levinson. In particular, Murray's results validated Gould's finding that men in mid-life are overly concerned about death and their physical decline.

Bowman's (1989) research concluded that men of all cultures progress through four sequential stages of adult development: (a) Pre-Adult Years/Identity; (b) Early Adulthood/Intimacy; (c) Middle Adulthood; Generativity; and (d) Old Age/Ego-Integrity. Although Bowman's theory aligned with Erikson's last four life stages, he suggested that life span approach for Black men must go beyond existing life span paradigms. Healthy development necessitates the resolution of the pivotal developmental tasks related to salient role strains (Crawley and Freeman, 1993).

Bowman (1989) maintained that Black men face setting salient role performance goals, pressing role barriers and critical role conflicts at each stage of adult development. A perceived "gap" between salient goals and pressing barriers in a major life role may produce a critical intra-role conflict during each adult stage of development (p.126). Bowman (1985) utilized a national study of Black husbands and fathers to conceptualize the "role strain-adaption" theory.

The primary focus of Bowman's research examined the effects of racism on the Black male's adult development. The researcher identified distinct role strains as objective difficulties, or subjective reactions to such difficulties, faced by people as they engage in valued social roles. Role strains could be produced by barriers in the social environment, by personal limitations or by conflicts at the environment-person interface. The manner in

which role difficulties are perceived, interpreted and evaluated may largely distinguish maladaptive from adaptive behavior responses.

As Black men transcend from adolescence to old age, a succession of conflicts in major life roles can cause an array of psychosocial development disturbances (Bowman, 1989). Each of the stage-specific psychosocial problems (structural strategies, self-protective mechanism and clinical symptomatology) must be resolved before development advances. Bowman (1989) posited:

> Black males may be pronged toward particular modes of coping with structural role barriers during different adult periods. Rebellion, innovation, and retreatism appear to predominate during the pre, early and middle adult years, respectively. At each adult stage, structural role barriers may frustrate adaptive coping efforts and seriously threaten self-esteem. Self-protective mechanisms may also help Black males to manage stress better during each stage. However, if intense role conflict produces unmanageable distress, maladaptive response patterns may include more severe systematology (p.135).

In general, Bowman's (1989) model identified distinct role strains and adaptive issues which the Black man confronts at each stage of adult development. The role strain analysis processes reflect successive shifts in salient goals, oppressive role barriers and critical coping tasks across the adult life span. That process is later followed by an analysis of two distinct role-adaptive processes-pathology and ethnicity (p.126). Bowman suggested the stage of pathology to examine the model shifts in maladaptive responses to the Black

male's critical role conflicts during each stage of adult development. In addition, examining ethnicity was suggested for identifying the cultural patterns which serve as resources in promoting healthier psychosocial development.

Herbert's (1989) research was based on the psychosocial theory of Levinson and Associates (1978). The focus of Herbert's research sought to contribute a Black perspective to the theory of adult psychosocial development and to investigate the effects of racism on the developmental stages of Black businessmen. Specifically, Herbert's research focused on the first four developmental periods of early adulthood: The Early Adult Transition (EAT); the Entry Lift Structure (ELS); the Age Thirty Transition (ATT); and the Culminating Life Structure (CLS). The sample of ten Black male entrepreneurs included men from 35 to 50 years of age, lower working class to upper middle class, high school drop-outs to holders of MBAs and other advanced graduate degrees, and in business varying from retail sales to manufacturing jobs. The theorist used a clinical/biographical interview method.

Herbert's (1989) findings concluded that formation of a satisfactory early adult life structure was a complex and difficult task for African-American men. These difficulties were attributed to the racial discrimination, racial prejudice, and racism experiences at the individual, institutional and cultural levels. Herbert (1990) stated:

> Blacks are continually faced with a double message. They are capable, able to learn, competent and high achievers. In turn, they are discriminated against, faced with adversities, denied advancement opportunities based on merit, offered fewer rewards and promotions, excluded from societal affirmation, and in other ways made aware that the barriers precluding their

success are extremely potent and costly. We have seen that living out one's adulthood under such conditions is extremely difficult. (p.441).

During the Early Adult Transition (EAT), the Black businessmen began developing the primary tasks of: separating from their families, forming an adult identity, forming a dream, forming significant love relationships, and forming an occupation or career. Herbert (1989) noted that the formation of an initial adult identity was a complex task. It involved the conscious and unconscious integration of racism into their racial and adult identity. During the Entry Life Structure (ELS), the Black businessmen began to explore new ways to live out their dreams and to express their individuality. These methods included pursuing a career, entering college, forming an independent home base, and initiating intimate relations.

The Age Thirty Transition (ATT) was a period where the businessmen experienced moderate and severe crises. During this period, it was common for Black men to express dissatisfaction with marital or love relationships (Intimacy), family matters, career, or employment status (p.439). The Black entrepreneurs used the Culminating Life Structure (CLS) period to review their previous dreams and ambitions and to identify long term goals for the future.

In summary, Herbert (1989) found Levinson's concepts of life structure and developmental age periods to be applicable in measuring Black adult psychosocial development. The developmental issues of occupation, marriage, family and dreams were examined and found relevant. The impact of racism was found to be persuasive, as a majority of the Black businessmen reported the development of a racial identity in each

structure as a major concern. Herbert's research suggested the inclusion of two additional interdependent developmental tasks to Levinson's et al. (1978) theory. The tasks included (a) the formation of an explicitly individual racial identity that both acknowledges and free the individual of racism and prejudices, and (b) the formation of an individual self-concept dedicated to the eradication and abolition of racism.

Crawley and Freeman's (1993) research suggested a proactive positive analysis of the life themes and views of young and elderly Black men. The researchers suggested that development of African-American men took place within the complex bicultural world of: (a) the rich and nurturing socio-eco-politico-cultural context of the African-American experience and (b) pro Eurocentric socialization messages which translate as "anti-Black". According to Crawley and Freeman, the bicultural forces required a multifaceted rather than a unitary frame of reference to elucidate the unique milieu of which African-Americans develop and value a broad array of life views and themes. Those multifaceted references consisted of psychosocial concepts, bicultural socialization factors and the Afrocentric paradigm.

While Crawley and Freeman's (1993) theory favored the usage of Erikson's stages of psychosocial development, the theorists suggested modifications were needed as they were applied to African-American males. "It must be recognized that significant aspects of these men's life experience have not been captured in the major theoretical paradigms of development and socialization used for the majority population" (p.16). As a result, modifications which reflect the effects of racial oppression and environment hostility were integrated in Crawley and Freeman's theory of Adult psychosocial development.

Crawley and Freeman (1993) suggested the utilization of De Anda's (1984) cultural deficit and cultural differences models for understanding the bicultural socialization forces. The cultural deficit model assessed the assumption of cultural homogeneity as the norm. Violation of these cultural (Eurocentric) norms were viewed as resulting from deficiencies in violators (cultural diverse populations) and their cultural life styles. The cultural differences model focuses on the uniqueness of minority populations. Specifically, the cultural difference model allowed for the explication of salient factors relevant to the bicultural socialization experience of Black people (Afrocentricity) within American society.

Afrocentricity was suggested as an appropriate intervention paradigm for African-American men. Crawley and Freeman noted that the value of Afrocentricity theory was its ability to facilitate a more holistic and healthy perspective for understanding African-American aspirations, strengths, and potential. Asante (1989) noted, "It is through the centering of one's self analysis and perceptions from the groundness of the African person that African-Americans develop healthy perspectives on one's self identity." Afrocentricity emphasizes humanity's oneness with nature, spirituality and collectivism. Whereas, Eurocentrism encourages controlling nature, materialism and individualism (Oliver 1989).

In conclusion, Crawley and Freeman's (1993) theory was based on three developmental and socialization areas: enhanced psychosocial concepts, bicultural factors, and the Afrocentric paradigm. Crawley and Freeman (1993) assessed that Black men faced certain psychosocial developmental tasks throughout their socialization and that the bicultural content was the milieu wherein those tasks will be accomplished. The

Afrocentric cultural ideology was considered the foundation through which Black men developed and socialization occurred. Specifically, the Afrocentric foundation served as a task for a more realistic conceptualization of African-American psychosocial development.

Jones (1996) sought to research an Afrocentric theoretically-based, multiple-case study of five successful African American male entrepreneurs. The primary objectives were to contribute an Afrocentric theoretical formulation of adult psychosocial development; to investigate African American racial/ethnic identity development; to examine what proactive coping strategies were used to control racism; and, to probe major concepts of Levinson's theory of adult psychosocial development.

Jones (1996) discovered that an Afrocentric theoretical perspective could be implemented in the conceptualization of adult psychosocial development and positive racial/ethnic identity development. Jones (1996) concluded that positive racial/ethnic identity was initially stimulated by early childhood psychosocial factors (e.g., family, community, school), and this identity would continue to develop throughout later life as a result of ensuing psychosocial experiences. African American racial/ethnic identity was found to be comprised of positive, negative, and ambiguous attributes existing within a phenomenal plane. The disparities between these attributes had to be resolved in order to develop a positive proactive identity.

Further Jones (1996) opined that racism continuously impinged upon the lives of Black men, regardless of their socioeconomic status. Subsequently, two racial/ethnic identity developmental tasks were proposed: (1) the internal resolution of racial/ethnic

identity that transcends negative stereotypes about African Americans; and (2) the incorporation of a proactive self-concept dedicated to the eradication of racism.

Based on the role that racial/ethnic identity played in making their life choices, four types of proactive coping styles used by the participants to neutralize racism were identified: (1) central theme for all life choices; (2) organizing theme for some life choices; (3) background theme for various life choices; and (4) neutral predisposition for life choices. These acknowledged proactive coping styles were unique cognitive processes employed by each participant in his perceptions of self-sufficiency, self-concept, racial/ethnic identity, racism, and socioeconomic competitiveness. Jones (1996) concluded that the future inclusion of an Afrocentric theoretically-based research model was warranted in the theoretical formulation of adult psychosocial development.

Black Female Adult Development

Jeffries (1985) exploratory study objectives were to examine the psychosocial development phases of Black women and to determine which phases were uniquely associated with Black female development. The work of Levinson et al. (1978) provided the conceptual framework for investigating the Black female sample. The sample consisted of 40 Black women who ranged from 20 to 40 years of age. Specifically, Jeffries sought to develop a culture-specific theoretical base on which mental health professionals and others could structure intervention strategies for Black women.

Jeffries (1985) found that age was not significantly related to psychosocial development among Black females. However, the study did show the existence of four phases that were culture-specific in nature and typically related to Black female

development. Phase I was considered the core stage for basic personality development. Jeffries (1985) assessed that the difficulty of this period was to resolve the identity crises of youth and to acquire a primary concept of self-worth.

Jeffries contended that in Phase II the Black female appeared to spend a period resolving unrealistic (Eurocentric) values and adapting to the realities of Black lifestyles. Specifically, the primary tasks of Phase III focused on the universal issues of: (a) assessment of educational/career options; (b) assessment of interpersonal relationships including intimate, marital and family options; and (c)formation of initial life scripts reflecting individual and group identities (p.165). Phase IV described a period of challenge and change in which the Black female questions and reorganizes her decision-making skills for competence and effectiveness. According to Jeffries, women who fail to adapt to changing environmental conditions succumb to the maladaptive effects of depression, anxiety, or submission.

The final step of Jeffries' Black female adult development theory was Phase V. The most notable aspect of Phase V was the Black female's tendency to compromise and to reconcile the life issues of the mental, physical, and emotional well-being. As a result, life issues are placed into perspective and resolved accordingly.

In summary, Jeffries' research findings suggested that race and age were not significantly related to Black female development. However, the findings did support the point that psychosocial development was culture-specific among Black women. Further, conflicting and negative messages conveyed during the female's adolescent and young adult

years may transcend into negative effects during the adult development processes.

Ruffin (1985), Simmons (1990), and Harris (1992) conducted an exploratory study to generate the hypotheses regarding the psychosocial development of Black women. The framework of Ruffin's study was based on the theoretical concepts of Levinson and Associates (1978). Ruffin sought to explore the relationship between age-related developmental change and an evolving racial identity.

The Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) was utilized by Ruffin to survey a sample of eight Black professional and business women. In addition, each subject participated in a ten-hour life history interview. Ruffin's research results supported Levinson's proposition that developmental change is expressed through changes in life structure (e.g., career, love, relationships, marriage, and family relationships).

Simmons' (1990) study was based on a theoretical perspective on life-span human development that explored the entire life cycle by looking at normative, non-normative, and socio-cultural-historical influences. The subjects of this study were eight African-American women between the ages of 65 and 74 who were selected through a network approach in the community. The subjects participated in a series of intensive biographical interviews that explored their entire life-span. The life histories of the subjects were presented descriptively, utilizing the life experiences of Black women

Simmons' (1990) study suggested that coping with a life of adversity was a common developmental theme. Simmons' study noted the importance of four developmental themes that were vital to the female development. Those developmental themes included: (a) having a strong religious belief throughout life; (b) belonging to and/or creating a family

network; (c) having a view of oneself as a survivor; and (d) having values to live by. Three additional developmental themes were identified for half the subjects in this study: (a) relationships with significant non-kin others; (b) obtaining an advanced education; and (c) having a career (p.144). Simmons' (1990) study attempted to lay ground work for building a psychosocial theory of elderly African-American women.

Harris' (1992) study proposed utilization of an Afrocentric model for assessing the growth and development of the African American woman. Harris' (1992) model was consistent with the Black woman's culture, history and tradition. Specifically, Harris' model addressed psychosocial issues related to childhood experiences, identity development, interpersonal relationships, and racism. These issues were examined by exploring three areas of the Black woman's development: a sense of identity; a sense of belonging; and a sense of control.

Harris' (1992) study focused on obtaining clinical and non-clinical development information on the African-American female population. Specifically, Harris sought to provide a developmental approach to explore and describe the types of experiences of adolescent and young Black adult females (p. 160). The data came from 54 taped interviews and questionnaires with Black women from a rural area. The population consisted of two samples. One group consisted of Black female college students aged 19 to 25 years, and another group consisted of teenage Black females aged 14 to 17 years.

Harris' (1992) findings suggested that: (1) the female respondent's sense of connection was not only a sense of belonging to the family and community but also incorporated a sense of spirituality; (2) problems with the Black woman's perceptions of the

Black man; and (3) an emphasis on ethnic pride and self development were suggested as tools for confronting racism.

Examination of the female's development themes should include a sense of belonging, identity, and control and provide the structure for self-exploration. From the assessment of the developmental themes, specific counseling goals to foster an understanding of these experiences could be developed. Harris concluded that using the assessment model for identifying areas of concern and developing goals for counseling will result in effective and relevant mental health services (p.106).

Group - Black Adult Development

Branch-Simpson (1985), Clay (1985), Littleton (1997), and Hill-Traynham(2000) conducted exploratory studies which sought to collect information toward the formation of a Black student developmental theory. Using Chickering's and Erikson's theory of development as frameworks, the researchers compared the degree to which Black students' psychosocial development differed from traditional theories. In addition, the researchers sought to describe the tasks and patterns of Black student development as reported by the students.

Branch-Simpson (1985) employed the phenomenological approach to interview a sample of forty Black college students (twenty males and twenty females). The findings of the study suggested that many of the students' task of development corresponded with Chickering's vectors of development. Those areas included: Competence, Autonomy, Intimacy, Values, Identity Formation, and Ways of Knowing. Branch-Simpson (1985) regarded Chickering's theory of development

to be applicable in measuring Black college students (young adults) development. The developmental vectors of Competence, Autonomy and Intimacy were studied and results were similar to Chickering's research.

However, the findings suggested that religion and spirituality were prominent in the developmental process of Black college students. In addition, men were expected to be more ambitious and career-achievement oriented than women. Further, the data suggested that closeness with family and interpersonal relationships were significant factors in the psychosocial development of Black college students.

The purpose of Clay's (1985) research was to determine if there exists among Black middle class adults age-linked, psychosocial stages of development which could be characterized by changes in their attitudes and perceptions of themselves to ascertain the developmental issues and sequences of various cultural subgroups in the society. Clay's (1985) study was designed to test the applicability of one stage model of adult development on the Black middle class.

Specifically, the objectives of Clay's (1985) cross-sectional study were to examine the psychosocial developmental phases of middle class African American adults and to determine whether those phases and their concomitant themes were identical for men and women in the sample. The work of Roger Gould provided the conceptual and methodological bases for the study thereby allowing an investigation of the applicability of the Gould model of adult development to a Black middle class population. It was hypothesized that there were no significant relationships between age, sex, or age in conjunction with sex and the subjects' attitudes and perceptions of

themselves, relationships with others and life experiences. The sample consisted of 240 Black middle class adults between the ages of 17 and 76. From an analysis of rankings of questionnaire items by age, the following nine age groups were identified: 29-33, 34-38, 39-43, 44-50, 51-58, and 59 and above.

A second objective of the study was to examine whether these stages and their concomitant themes were identical for middle class African American men and women. Clay (1985) investigated the generalizability of the Gould model of adult development to a Black American middle class population. Clay's (1985) research attempted to generate implications for counseling Black adults from a developmental perspective.

In Clay's (1985) research, the attitudes and perceptions of one segment of the Black American population were investigated. Intragroup differences based on age and sex, as well as continuities across age and gender groups were found. Although Black people were studied independently in this work, Clay (1985) concluded from the results that there are differences and similarities between the psychosocial development of Black middle class adults and that of White middle class adults. However, unlike in traditional research on Black people this study was not based on a cultural deviance model, therefore, the differences found have not been interpreted as deficits.

The Gould model of adult development was found applicable for a Black middle class population. Clay's (1985) study demonstrates that African American adults continue to change throughout adulthood and that many of these changes occur

in sequential phases. Clay's (1985) study is significant in that it examines Black adult self-esteem from a developmental perspective suggesting that there are changes in self-regard that are related to time and circumstances.

Littleton's (1997) study sought to determine if Black doctoral students resolve various developmental tasks during designated stages of the life cycle based on their demographic differences (gender, age, marital status, and enrollment status) as suggested by Erikson. Erikson's eight stages of the life cycle were used as a theoretical framework in determining the answer to the research topic. Specifically, Erikson's last three stages of psychosocial development (Intimacy, Generativity, and Ego-Integrity) were investigated. Littleton (1997) investigated to determine if there were significant differences in the development of Black doctoral students with regard to Erikson's last three stages of the life cycle and if interaction effects were relevant regarding the doctoral students' gender, age, marital status, and enrollment status. Littleton's (1997) research sample consisted of 96 African-American doctoral students enrolled at eight Historically Black Universities (HBUs). The study survey was completed by (48 male and 48 female) doctoral students.

Results of Littleton's (1997) study failed to confirm that a significant difference exists among age, gender, enrollment and marital status independently, as well as combined regarding the resolution of Erikson's psychosocial stages of Intimacy and Ego-Integrity. Additionally, these four aforementioned variables

independently were found to be nonsignificant with regard to Generativity. However, a level of significance was found regarding the doctoral students' resolution of the Generativity task with respect to gender, marital status, and enrollment status in the study.

Further data analysis revealed that male married part-time, male unmarried full-time, and male and female married full-time doctoral students showed a more favorable perception than male unmarried part-time doctoral students toward resolving the Generativity task of psychosocial development. Neugarten (1973) opined that adults resolve tasks of Generativity when they expand their time perspectives and the ways in which they deal with major themes of school, work, love, and death.

Specifically, many doctoral students work in full-time capacities and commute to late afternoon or evening classes, thereby, causing conflicts with their outside commitments (Cross, 1981 and Schlossberg et al., 1989). Those commitments are of special concern for married doctoral students, who coordinate the responsibilities of child care, financial obligations, family matters, work, and social activities. In essence, doctoral students resolving the Generativity task of psychosocial development must be productive in maintaining their responsibilities of caring for others and creative in balancing those responsibilities to include their own (Erikson, 1963).

Other important findings of Littleton's (1997) study were those surrounding the combination effects of the variables: gender, age, and marital status with regard

to Generativity. Even though a significance was not achieved, there was a marked tendency toward significance with regard to these variables. One reasonable explanation, based on the work of Erikson, might be that adults resolving the Generativity tasks of development are consumed with providing for their family and the next generation. Generativity is seen as a period of productivity and creativity. In essence, middle age is envisioned as a vital period for accomplishing one's life goals and objectives. Failure to do so may result in stagnation and despair. The social institutions of adult life, including: marriage, parenthood, school, and work, reinforce Generativity and guarantee Generativity resolution (Erikson, 1963).

Hill-Traynham's (2000) theory of Psychosocial Centerness posited that Black students at predominantly White colleges showed greater levels of intellectual development and cultural enhancement if their college experiences revolve within the realm of their own cultural perspectives. The Psychosocial Centerness is based on the Asante's (1989) concept of Afrocentricity. Asante's theory of Afrocentricity suggested that Black students develop better when their context of learning is related to their cultural life experiences. The Psychosocial Center theory was founded on the premise of a three-tier model.

Specifically, in order for a student to reach a successful level of psychosocial centerness one must recognize and withdraw from the three stages of psychosocial discourse. The tiers include: Assimilation-Dislocation, Awareness-Metamorphosis, and Affirmation-Total Mind Liberation. Hill-Traynham's (2000) model of development suggested that under Tier 1- (Assimilation-Dislocation) Black college

students assimilate to Eurocentric world views, seek approval of so-called dominant culture, and limit interactions with the African-American Community. Tier 2-(Awareness-Metamorphosis) Black students question their frame of reference, experience feelings of guilt/betrayal and develop interest in the African-American cultural community.

Further, Tier 3 (Affirmation-Total Mind Liberation) the Black College student develops a strong sense of cultural awakening and pride, becomes more civic minded and searches for a greater knowledge of one's self and history. Hill-Traynham (2000) opined that Black students completing the Psychosocial Centerness Tiers display greater signs of academic development and personal growth. Furthermore, students display attributes of greater self-esteem, a heighten desire for academics, a positive attitude, an a stronger sense of community.

Summary

The preceeding literature has provided an alternative view of adult development and psychological development theories pertaining to the development of Black adult students. These "nontraditional" theories have attempted to fill a void in the challenges and resolutions of adult intra personal issues (Jeffries, Ruffin, Bowman, Herbert, Simmons, Harris, Crawley and Freeman, Jones, Littleton, and Hill-Traynham) life themes, developmental tasks,

role strains, and socialization factors that reflect the nature and needs of the Black adult student.

Although a number of "nontraditonal" theorists proposed Afrocentric theories, several have included elements of numerous "traditional" theory models. A review of the literature strongly suggested that modifications reflect the effects of racial oppression and environmental hostility. The primary objectives of the forementioned theories were to contribute to the development of (Afrocentric) Black adult development theories, and investigate the impact of racism, culture, gender, socio-economic status on Black adult development.

References

Blackwell, J. W. (1981). Main streaming outsiders: The production of Black professionals. Bayside, NY: General Hall.

Bowman, P. J. (1985). Black fathers and the provider role: Role strain, informal coping resources and life happiness. In A. W. Boykin (Ed.), Empirical research in Black psychology,9-19. Washington, DC: National Institute for Mental Health.

Bowman, P. J. (1989). Research perspectives on Black men: Role strain and adaption across the adult life cycle. In R. L. Jones (Ed.), Black adult development and aging. Berkeley, CA: Cobb and Henry Publishers.

Branch-Simpson, G. (1985). A study of the patterns in the development of Black students at the Ohio State University. Dissertation Abstracts International, 45, 2422. (University Microfilms No. 84-26, 356).

Cheatham, H. E. & Slaney, R. B. (1990). Institutional effects on the psychosocial development of African-American college students. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 37 (4), 453-458.

Chickering, A. W. (1981). The modern American college. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Clay, C. A. (1985). The psychosocial development of middle class African men and women. Dissertations Abstracts International (University Microfilm No. 8506758).

Clayton, V. (1975). Erikson's theory of human development as it applies to the aged: Wisdom as contradictive cognition. Human Development, 18, 119-128.

Crawley, B. & Freeman, E. M. (1993). Themes in the life views of older and younger African American males. The Journal of African American Male Studies, 1 (1), 15-29.

Gavin, J. R. III (1989). Issues and strategies in the retention of minority faculty and staff in higher education in W. E. Ward & M. M. Cross (Eds.) Key issues in minority education, Norman, OK: University of Oklahoma Press.

Gooden, W. E. (1980). The adult development of Black men - Vol. 1 & 2. Dissertation Abstracts International, 41, 4283-4284B. (University Microfilms No. 8109667).

Gould, R. L. (1972). The phases of adult life: A study in developmental psychology. American Journal of Psychology, 129 (5), 521-531.

Gould, R. L. (1975). Adult life stages: Growth toward self tolerance. Psychology Today, 8 (9), 74 -78.

Green, A. W. (1974). Holders of doctorates among American Negroes. Newton, MA: Crofton.

Harris, D. J. (1992). A cultural model for assessing the growth and development of the African-American female. Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 24, 158-167.

Heath, D. H. (1980). Wanted: A comprehensive model of healthy development. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 58(5), 391-399.

Herbert, J. I. (1989). Black male entrepreneurs and adult development. New York: Prager Press.

Herbert, J. I. (1990). Integrating race and adult psychosocial development. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 11, 433-446.

Hill-Traynham, P. K. (2000). An Afrocentric Perspective toward Black student development: From theory to practice. Houston, TX: Institute for Black Student Development.

Hughes, R. (1982). The nontraditional student in higher education: A synthesis of the literature. NASPA Journal, 17(2), 51-64.

Jeffries, D. L. (1985). An exploratory study of Black adult development among forty females ages twenty to forty. Dissertation Abstract International, 46, 1563. (University Microfilms No. 85-17,418).

Jones, R. W. (1996). African-American Titans: Beyond Black rage. Adult psychosocial development of African-American entrepreneurs. Dissertation Abstract International. (University Microfilm No. 57-06B: 4057).

Jordan-Cox, C. A. (1987). Psychosocial development of students in traditionally Black institutions. Journal of College Student Personnel, 28 (6), 504-512.

Littleton, R. Jr. (1997). Understanding the nature and needs of Black doctoral students. Journal of the National Association of Student Affairs Professionals. 7,(1), 10-20

Levinson, D. J., Darrow, C. N., Klein, E. B., Levinson, M. H., and McKee, B. (1978). The season of a man's life. New York, NY: Knopf.

McEwen, M. K., Roper, L. D., Gryant, D. R. & Langa, M. J. (1990). Incorporation of the development of African-American students into psychosocial theories of student development. Journal of College Student Development, 31, 429-436.

Neugarten, R. L. (1968). Adult personality: Toward a psychology of the life cycle. in R. L. Neugarten (Ed.) Middle age and aging. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Oliver, W. (1989). Black males and social problems: Prevention through Afrocentric socialization.Journal of Black Studies. 20, (1), 15-39

Riegel, K. F. (1975). Adult life crises: A dialectic interpretation of development in N.Datin and L. H. Ginsberg (Ed.) Life-span developmental psychology. New York, NY: Academic Press, 107.

Riegel, K. F. (1979). Foundations of dialectical psychology. New York, NY: Academic Press.

Ruffin, J. F. (1985). An exploratory of adult development in Black professional women. Dissertation Abstract International, 46, 1700. (University Microfilms No. 85-15, 656).

Schlossberg, N. K., Lynch, A. Q. and Chickering, A. W. (1989). Improving higher education environment for adults. San Francicso, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Sheehy, G. (1976). Passages: Predictable causes of adult life. New York, NY: E. F. Dutton.

Simmons, P. O. (1990). A life span developmental approach toward building a theory of the elderly African American female. Dissertation Abstracts International. (University Microfilm No. 51-07B: 3593).

Vaillant, G. E. (1977). Adaption of life: How the best and brightest came of age. Boston, MA: Little Brown.

CHAPTER V

Afrocentricity: The missing task in Black adult development?

African-American students at many colleges are heterogeneous and diverse due to demographic, social and educational backgrounds. Their needs cover a wide range as a result of the diversity. Black adult development is extremely important because of the student constituency served. Student development theories, student-support programs, curricular and extracurricular, should be designed to meet the special needs of cultural diverse populations (Schlossberg et al., 1989). A review of current literature suggests that the majority of African-American adult development literature centers on (a) racial awareness or racial identity development; (b) career choices and decisiveness; and most importantly (c) academic and social development (Cheatham et al., 1990). These factors, crucial for psychosocial development, provide a means for studying the development of African-American adult students.

Chickering and Associates (1981) noted every college and university in the country (whether public or private, 2-year or 4-year, or graduate) are in the business of shaping lives, lives that reflect much more than academic learning. Those responsible for teaching and helping Black students must create models of human and student development that take into account the unique needs and experiences that Black students bring to the college campus. Various issues specific to African-American adult development are not inclusive in traditional adult development theories (McEwen, Roper, Bryan, and Langa 1990).

While different in form and content, traditional development theories have stressed the sense of change and adaptation over the adult years. Chickering (1981) and Heath (1980) represent those

who have advanced their theories on "traditional" students. The core collection of adult development theories includes Levinson et al. (1978), Gould (1975), Riegel (1975), Valliant (1977), Sheehy (1976), and Neugarten (1969). Erikson is considered the unquestionable innovator of the field.

Traditional theories failed to define factors that promoted the Black adult students' overall psychosocial development. Most traditional theorists presumed that all adult students experienced developmental tasks in a similar manner. The majority of adult development theories failed to acknowledge the culture-race aspects of development (Fleming, 1984; Wright, 1987; and Gilson, 1990). As a result, culture, sex, and class may prove questionable in evaluating minorities' developmental processes (Wright, 1987; Gavin, 1989; and Cheatham and Slaney, 1990; and McEwen, Roper, Gryant and Langa, 1990).

In contrast to theorists who proposed the utilization of "traditional" models of psychosocial development, nontraditional theorists (Gooden, 1980:Branch-Simpson, 1985; Clay, 1985; Jeffries, 1985; Ruffin, 1985; Bowman, 1989; Herbert, 1989; Simmons, 1990; Harris, 1992; Crawley and Freeman, 1993; Jones, 1996; Littleton, 1997; and Hill-Traynham, 2000) suggested the conceptualization of different models to identify the unique characteristics of psychosocial development for culturally diverse Black adults. Although a number of "nontraditional" theorists proposed cultural-centric theories, several have incorporated segments of various "traditional" theory models.

A review of "nontraditional theories" suggested that analysis of Black adult development should be based on three development and socialization areas: enhanced psychosocial concepts, bicultural factors, and the Afrocentric paradigm. Crawley and Freeman (1993) suggested Black

adults face certain psychosocial development tasks throughout their socialization and the bicultural context is the milieu wherein these tasks are accomplished. The foundation through which their development and socialization must occur is the Afrocentric cultural ideology (Jeffries, 1985; Ruffin, 1985; Bowman, 1989; Herbert, 1989; Simmons, 1990; Harris, 1992; Crawley and Freeman, 1993; Jones, 1996; Littleton, 1997; and Hill-Traynham 2000). It is the Afrocentric foundation which forms the meaning of psychosocial tasks as well as interprets the bicultural milieu so it is negotiated on terms which support the essential" groundness of the African person"(Oliver 1989, p.19).

The common developmental tasks (Intimacy, Generativity, and Ego-Integrity) of adult students often go unaddressed on many college campuses (Miller and Winston, 1990). By focusing on the issues, concerns, nature and needs of Black students, colleges can develop a comprehensive philosophy for delivering effective student services which promote development. Although the individual's growth is influenced by his or her environment, colleges are challenged to design structured experiences that allow the student to develop in a positive manner.

Psychosocial Development Tasks

Erikson's eight stages of psychosocial development present a viable life span approach to psychosocial development among Blacks (Bowman, 1989). In Erikson's psychosocial model, healthy development requires one to settle pivotal conflicts and master related developmental tasks at each stage of growth. While not uncritically accepting the claims of "universality" of Erikson's psychosocial stages of development, Crawley and Freeman (1993) believed those stages and their accompanying tasks were useful for explaining various aspects of the development and socialization

of Blacks. Erikson's psychosocial stages were normed on society's expectation of age-appropriate behaviors.

In essence, Erikson's theory lays out a general sense of the problems, decisions, and issues that occupy Black college students' lives. In addition, Erikson's theory suggested necessary experiences for coping with the tasks of adulthood, role experimentation, meaningful achievement, the experiencing of choice, time, and encouragement for reflection. These factors serve as general "prescriptions" that can be used as a framework of analysis for evaluating an ongoing collegiate environment or for changing such an environment to further Black adult development.

Intimacy

The fulfillment of the need for Intimacy is believed to be central to adult life satisfaction (Erikson, 1982). Intimacy is characterized by an individual's openness, lack of defensiveness, sharing, mutual caring, sensitivity and generosity. The need for Intimacy becomes most salient in young adulthood, when one faces the Intimacy vs. Isolation crisis. Higher education should encourage the capacity for Intimacy for two reasons. The ability to enter into and sustain such relationships is a major vehicle for increased self-understanding, in terms of one's motives, values, future plans, aspirations, and interpersonal style. Schlossberg (1989) noted the importance of such close interpersonal relationships can hardly be exaggerated: not only do they constitute a strong source of support in times of stress, but they also add color and warmth to what otherwise might be a drab and flat existence.

Table 1.

Psychosocial Developmental-Socialization Chart:
Task and Issues for African-American Men

Growth and development stages/life span categories	Tasks and socialization issues
Young adulthood (20 years to 39 years)	-- establish and maintain a work lifestyle/career. *--engage in struggle against social injustices. --engage in long term committed relationship such as marriage. --establish families with children (or children free families) --establish a lifestyle. --manage and transform experiences of social injustice and social inconsistencies based of race. *--develop and implement parenting skills for instructing children how to survive and negotiate the multiracial, bicultural environment/society.
Middle Adulthood (40 years to 64)	--manage a household. --manage a career. *--continue struggle against social injustice as expressed in racism, discrimination, and prejudice. *--deepen and enhance transformation and transcendent skills in coming to terms with society's treatment of and response to one's racial/color identity. --initiate acceptance of one's biophysical changes.
Later Adulthood (65 years plus)	--accept one's life and experiences. --identify and implement new roles. *--continue struggle against social injustices and social inconsistencies. --accept one's mortality and ongoing demise.

*Task and issues most directly influence by race, ethnicity, or culture representing Crawley and Freeman's expansion of current psychosocial theoretical concepts. Source:"Themes in the Life Views of Older and Younger African American Males," B. Crawley and E. Freeman, 1993 Journal of African American Male Studies.1, (1) p. 18. Copyright © 1993, National Council of African-American Men. Reprinted and adapted with permission.

Although men and women seem to differ significantly in their ability to form intimate relationships, American men, in particular, tend to avoid Intimacy. A number of Black men avoid marriage primarily because they are uncertain of their ability to carry out their economic responsibilities as husbands and fathers in the face of a racially hostile world (Herbert, 1989). Psychosocial studies suggest that basic human needs for Intimacy may be seriously threatened by isolation among jobless young Blacks because work and love become more intertwined in early adulthood than in other periods (Bowman, 1989). Men respond to traumatic events differently than women. This is due in part to their inability to form interpersonal relationships outside of their marriage. Researchers speculate that this difficulty to form relationships and resolve stress contributes to the Black male's shorter life expectancy.

The timing of women's Intimacy aspirations is usually more interrupted than for men. A review of literature reported that a young man's major concern through much of his life is his career; whereas, a young woman is socialized to place her primary emphasis on family and relationships. It seems clear that returning to school often causes problems in women's established relationships, even disrupting marriages in a significant proportion of cases.

Conversely, for many women, the return to school is itself stimulated by some change in the interpersonal sphere. Jeffries (1985) contended that in Intimacy the Black female appeared to spend a period resolving unrealistic (Eurocentric) values and adapting to the realities of Black lifestyles. Specifically, resolving the universal issues of: (a) assessment of educational/career options; (b) assessment of interpersonal relationships including intimate, marital and familial options; and (c) formation of initial life scripts reflecting individual and group identities (Adams, 1983 and Jeffries, 1985).

In summary, Intimacy is much more than love making alone. Intimacy is the ability to share with and to care about another person without fear of losing one's self in the process. In the case of Intimacy, success or failure no longer depends directly upon the parents but only indirectly as they have contributed to the individual's success or failure earlier. Intimacy need not involve sexuality; it includes the relationship between friends, parents, spouse, children, and lover (Erikson, 1982).

Generativity

It is out of the intimacies of young adulthood that Generativity becomes the task of middle age (Erikson, 1982). Erikson proposed that the crisis of Generativity occurs during the middle age years. Erikson defined Generativity as a stage where adults begin to show concern for others beyond their immediate family. Wrightsman (1988) added that Generativity, in the broadest sense, is a reaching out, transmitting a concern for the next generation. It goes beyond one's family; the issue is now that of taking responsibility in the adult world. Those who fail to establish a sense of Generativity fall into a state of self-absorption in which their personal needs and comfort are their major concern. Generativity is a period of challenge and change in which the black female questions and reorganizes her decision-making skills for competence and effectiveness. According to Jeffries (1985), women who fail to adapt to changing environmental conditions succumb to the maladaptive effects of depression, anxiety or submission.

Washington and Associates (1990) noted that doctoral students, at the research and dissertation stage of their program, often displayed symptoms of intenseness, single-mindedness, over-sensitivity, indifference to criticism and stagnation. As a result of their lack of research experience, students often felt depressed, discouraged, isolated, overwhelmed and incompetent to

complete the doctoral program. Numerous research studies report that African American students attending college are consistently concerned with (a) financing their personal and educational needs; (b) performing well academically; and (c) residing under comfortable living conditions, both physically and socially.

A growing number of African American students enrolled at predominantly White colleges experience classroom biases, hostile interpersonal climates and feelings of social isolation.(Chideya, 1995) Further, numerous Black students experience problems in forming informal relationships with their professors because they feel their teachers are insensitive to their problems. Levinson et al. (1978) suggested the utilization of mentoring to addressing the developmental needs of adult students. Mentoring addresses several of the causes of student attrition and delayed graduation, including the lack of proper academic preparation for college, the lack of knowledge about or access to social or academic resources, and the absence of a comfortable psychosocial milieu for matriculation (Gavin, 1989).

Mentoring has been viewed as having two major components, one dealing with the transfer of marketable and often discipline-based skills, behaviors, and attitudes, and the other related to the social and emotional interaction that makes the transfer of knowledge and skills possible (Hill, 1989). With this view, mentoring becomes an attractive method for meeting the needs of culturally diverse college students.

Table 2.

Psychosocial Development-Socialization Chart: Tasks and Issues for African-American Women.

Growth and development stages/life span categories	Tasks and socialization issues
Pre-adulthood	--questions and reassess preliminary life structures.
Phase III	--explores alternatives for change (modify and/or revise).
(17- 22 years)	--second identity crisis or re-emergence of the adolescent crisis.
	--separation anxiety and resolve adolescent crisis.
	--confront racial/sexual issues; acknowledge inherent differences.
	--formation of sociopolitical reality.
	--search for satisfying relationship with male.
	--decisions over childbearing issues.
	--establish preliminary life structure(work, love, peer, etc.,).
Young adulthood	--questions relating to life structure: What have I accomplished?
Phase IV	Where have I failed?What is available to me?Whom am I
(26-35 years)	-- (Psychological panic) Initial physical decline;
	--yearning for personal acknowledgment.
	--movement-autonomy.
	--integrate fragmented parts of self.
	--resolve biological panic(material yearnings).
	--urgency to obtain/maintain stable relationships.
	--revise life structure.
Middle adulthood	--establish fit between individual needs/society; extreme
Phase V	dissatisfaction with self, choices, options, life;
(35-45 years)	--urgency to change/move toward autonomy/individuation.
	-experience loss (physical decline, youth, senses, children,spouse)
	--make choices about direction of life structure.
	--acknowledges successes/failures; adapts to changes.
	--issue of loneliness; absence of intimate partners.
	--relationships/responsibilities to others.
	--rework life structure.
	--establish adult identity as a Black female.
Late adulthood	*--continue a strong religious belief through life.
Phase VI*	--belong to and/create a family network.
(65-74 years)	--view one's self as a survivor
	--maintain values to live by

Note: "An Exploratory Study of Black Adult Development Among Forty Females ages Twenty to Forty Years," by D. L. Jeffries, 1985. Dissertation Abstracts International. pp. 114-118

Copyright © 1985 by D. L. Jeffries. Reprinted and adapted by permission.

In summary, adults in the Generativity stage display an attitude of hope for the future, regardless of current conditions. Generativity refers to the contributions to future generations through creativity and productivity in areas such as the arts and sciences. Such achievements give life meaning and enable the individual to feel that one has done something worthwhile that will leave a lasting mark in the world (Schlossberg, 1989).

Ego-Integrity

Erikson's (1982) task of Integrity is the culmination of one's development, a stage marked by acceptance and satisfaction in one's own life experiences. Erikson added, "There is a solidarity, a sense of calm in those persons who have taken care of things and people properly. The sense of Integrity arises from the individual's ability to reflect on past life experiences with accomplishment and satisfaction." At the other extreme is the individual who looks back upon one's life as a series of missed opportunities and missed directions. Once in the twilight years, the adult realizes that it is too late to start again. As a result, the person experiences the inevitable stage of despair.

White (1984) noted, "As a person gains a more mature awareness of the Black psychological perspective, he or she will be able to experience sorrow without being overwhelmed by a sense of despair and futility; he or she will learn how to discover one's capacity to survive, how to open oneself up to power of renewal, how to discover one's capacity to survive, how to gain strength from being part of something larger than oneself, part of a vital life force that has continued to emerge despite the harshness of oppression, and how to deal with overt racism. The Black elderly (African Griots) are like living reservoirs of Black heritage. The Black elderly serve as the vehicle through which the African consciousness is transmitted." (p. 71)

The major crisis of old age is Integrity versus Despair, and the primary goal is to become an integrated and self-accepting person. How the individual handles the crisis depends on personality characteristics that have been developing for years, as well as physical health, economic situation, and the meaningfulness of the social roles that can be played successfully (Erikson, 1982). A sense of despair in old age stems more often from health problems, financial security, social isolation, and inactivity that accompany the retiring years. Little (1995) suggested that seeking a degree in higher education functions to: (a) improve self-esteem by enhancing some perceived insecurity; (b) increase mental activity and social interaction;

(C) develop a mature sense of Generativity, and (d) lessen the grieving procedures for handling retirement or the death of a love one.

In summary, the Black elderly have built up a wealth of life experiences, they've experienced the intimacy of close relationships, contributed valuable insights into the decision-making process, and participated in the excitement and disappointment of living as life unfolds for the generations behind them. Their presence in the extended family provides a certain steadiness, a calm effect on younger middle-aged adults as they are moving through the critical periods of adult development. The alteration of one's perspective on time may be part of the process by which Integrity develops (White, 1984). Positive self-esteem among older Black students requires them to sustain a level of integrity to effectively cope with despair. Despite the importance of present economic well-being, integrity in the elderly role may depend even more on past role successes that promote Identity, Intimacy and Generativity (Bowman, 1989).

Bicultural Socialization and the Afrocentric Paradigm

A review of the literature revealed that modifications were needed in adult development theories if they were to be applicable to Black adult students. Major theoretical paradigms of development and socialization used for the majority population failed to recognize the significant aspects of Black adult life experiences. The impact of racism when compare to all other barriers (e.g., economic, social, class, and political) were the most detrimental to Black male psychosocial development (Herbert, 1989). The life span approach for Black men go beyond existing life span developmental tasks.

Bicultural Socialization

Black male adult development takes place within the complex bicultural world of: (a) the rich and nurturing socio-cultural content of the African-American experience and: (b) pro Eurocentric socialization messages which translate as " Anti-Black" (Bowman, 1989). Adult development requires a multifaceted rather than a unitary frame of reference to understand the unique environment in which Black men develop and value a broad array of life views and themes. Black men face setting important role performance goals, pressing role barriers and critical role conflicts at each stage of adult development. Role strains could be produced by barriers in the social environment, by personal limitations or by conflicts at the environment-personal interface. The disparities between these attributes have to be resolved in order to develop a positive proactive identity. The manner in which role difficulties are perceived, interpreted and evaluated may largely distinguish maladaptive from adaptive behavioral responses (p. 129).

Examining ethnicity identifies the cultural patterns which serve as resources in promoting healthier psychosocial development. Jones (1996) concluded the positive racial/ethnic identity was

initially stimulated by early childhood psychosocial factors (e.g., family, community, and school) and this identity would continue to develop through out life as a result of ensuing psychosocial experiences. Afrocentricity is recommended as an appropriated intervention paradigm for Black men. The inclusion of two additional interdependent development tasks to address Black adult development is warranted (Herbert, 1989 and Jones, 1996). The tasks include (a) the formation of an explicit individual racial identity that both acknowledges and frees the individual of racism (stereotypes) and prejudices, and (b) the formation of an individual (proactive) self concept dedicated to the eradication and abolition of racism.

Coping with adversity was a common development theme for Black women (Simmons, 1990). Conflicting and negative messages conveyed during the female's adolescent and young adult years may transcend into negative effects during the adult development processes. Jeffries (1985) contended Black females endure a period of challenge and change in which decision-making skills are reorganized for competence and effectiveness. Women who fail to adapt to change environmental conditions succumb to the maladaptive effects of depressions, anxiety, or submission

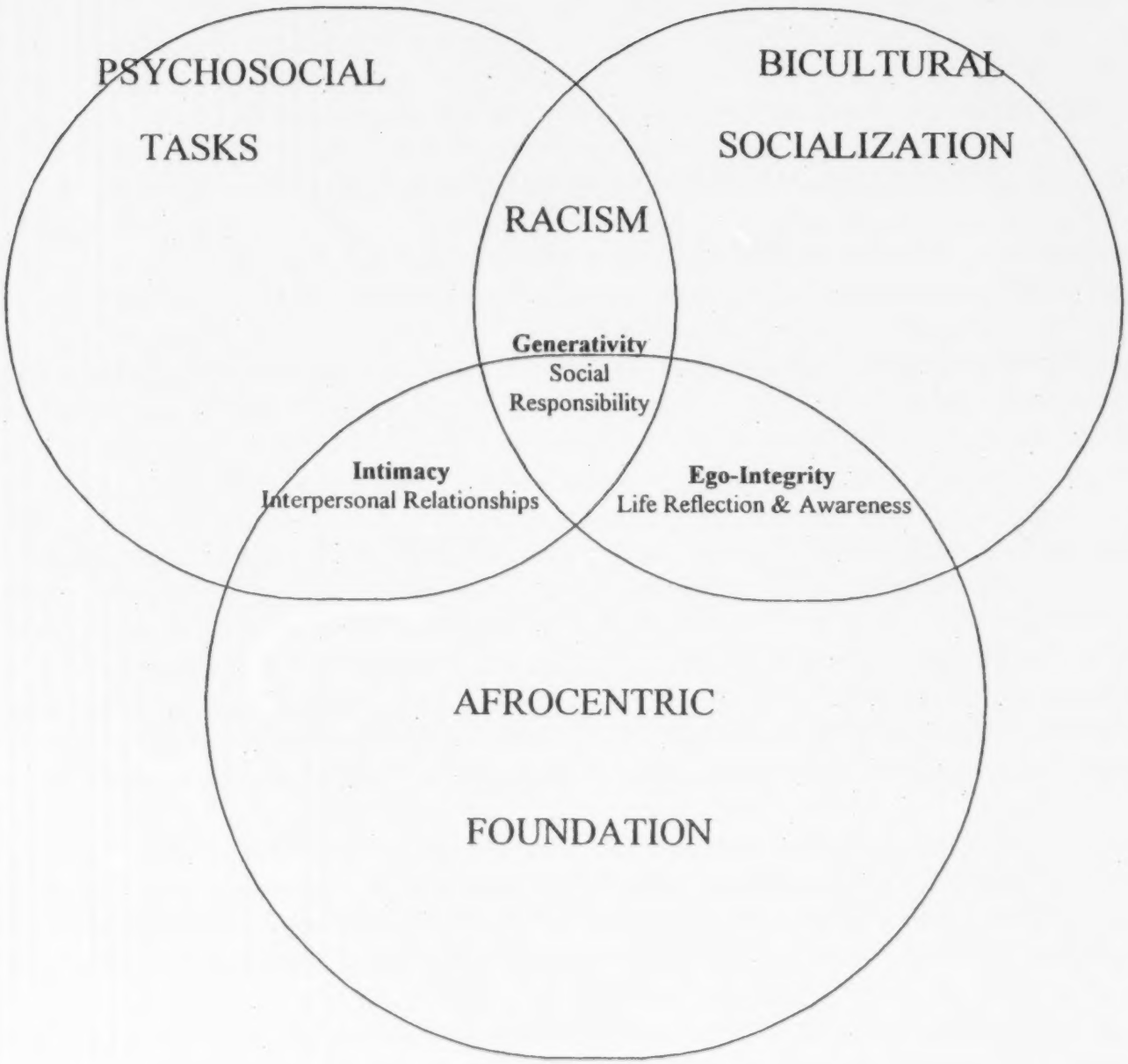
Ruffin's (1985) study confirmed that developmental changes in Black women are expressed through changes in their life structure (e.g.. racism, career, love, interpersonal relationships, marriage, and family relationships). Black women who compromise and reconcile the life issues (mental, physical, and emotion well being) find perspective and resolution. Black female adult development involves: (a) a sense of Afrocentric identity; (b) a sense of control; (c) a sense of belonging: and (d) a sense of religion and spirituality (Harris, 1992). The utilization of an Afrocentric model is appropriate for assessing the growth and development of the Black woman.

The Afrocentric paradigm

The Afrocentric paradigm is a value system based on African civilization and philosophy. Afrocentricity is an ideology that encourages Blacks to transcend their problems by reclaiming traditional African values. According to Oliver (1989) the Afrocentric paradigm emphasizes humanity's oneness with nature, spirituality, and collectivism. This perspective is contradictive to Eurocentric values, which encourage controlling nature, materialism and individualism. Eurocentric values fail to facilitate African history and the African-American experience (Majors and Billson, 1993).

McEwen, Roper and Langa (1990) posited their were several Afrocentric issues specific to Black adult development that were not inclusive in traditional theories. Such issues include: (1) the unique psycho-history of Blacks in this country and the adaptions that Blacks must make: (2) the "Colonized" nature of Black existence in this country; (3) the extended nature of the Black family and Black home life; (4) the unique educational/socialization role of the Black family; (5) the oral tradition within the Black community; (6) the impact of racial hostility and environmental pressures; (7) the unique character of Black Americans; (8) the psychological dynamics that accompany being a "caste-like" minority; (9) representing a "rejected strain" in society and being codified; (10) attempting to reconcile two identities; (11) the philosophical connections to African tradition, action/beliefs; (12) elastic concept of time, kinship tradition, survival focus (Collective vs. Individual) and spiritual disposition; and (13) the view of people as an integrated whole (p. 430).

The Afrocentric paradigm is a collective philosophy--underpinned by meaningful cultural traditions and institutions--that emphasize cooperation, mutual respect, commitment, love of family,



BLACK ADULT DEVELOPMENT PARADIGM

race, community and nation. Most importantly, the Afrocentric paradigm attempts to inspire adults to structure their behavior and values toward the elevation of the community interests over those of the individual (Majors and Billson, 1993) The Afrocentricity theory has the ability to facilitate a more holistic and healthy perspective for understanding Black aspirations, strengths and potential. Afrocentricity serves as a task for a more realistic conceptualization of Black adult development (Asante, 1989).

Summary

As America's colleges continue to transform their student development policies to adhere to needs of their culturally diverse student populations, they must consider socio-cultural factors into their conceptualization (Jordan-Cox, 1987 and McEwen et al., 1990). Although considerable evidence suggested that various aspects of Black adult development appear consistent with basic patterns of "traditional" student development, there are certain race and cultural factors that infringe on the framework of psychosocial development (Wright, 1987).

Black adults continue to change through out adulthood and many of the changes occur in sequential phases. The formation of an initial adult identity remains a complex task. Successful adult development involves the conscious and unconscious integration of racism into their racial and adult identity. Current forms of racial discrimination and racism, arising out a national history of enslavement, are not only barriers to Black achievement, but also Black psychosocial development. Of all factors (economic, social, class, and race) associated with the many barriers facing Blacks in America, those associated with race are the most persuasive (Herbert, 1989). The literature overwhelmingly supports the utilization of the Afrocentricity theory as a method of conceptualizing more realistic paradigms of Black adult development. The future inclusion of the Afrocentricity theory is warranted in facilitating the development of the Black adult student.

References

Asante, M. K. (1989). Afrocentricity. Trenton , NJ:African World Press, Inc.

Adams, D. M. (1983). The psychosocial development of professional Black women's lives and the consequences of career for their personal happiness. Dissertation Abstracts International, (University Microfilm No. 44-12b, 3920).

Bowman, P. J. (1989). Research perspectives on Black men: Role strain and adaption across the adult life cycle. In R.L. Jones (Ed.) Black adult development and aging. Berkeley, CA: Cobb and Henry Publisher.

Branch-Simpson, G. (1985). A study of the patterns in the development of Black students at the Ohio State University. Dissertation Abstracts International, 45, 2422. (University Microfilms No. 84-26, 356).

Cheatham, H. E. & Slaney, R. B. (1990). Institutional effects on the psychosocial development of African-American college students. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 37 (4), 453-458.

Chickering, A. W. (1981). The modern American college. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Chideya, F.(1995). Don't believe the hype: Fight cultural misinformation about African-Americans. New York: Penguin Group.

Clay, C. A. (1985). The psychosocial development of middle class African men and women. Dissertations Abstracts International (University Microfilm No. 8506758).

Crawley, B. & Freeman, E. M. (1993). Themes in the life views of older and younger African American male. The Journal of African American Male Studies, 1 (1), 15-29.

Erikson, E. (1982). The life cycle completed. New York, NY: W. W. Norten & Co., Inc.

Fleming, J. (1984). Blacks in college. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Gavin, J. R. III (1989). Issues and strategies in the retention of minority faculty and staff in higher education in W. E. Ward & M. M. Cross (E's.) Key issues in minority education, Norman, OK: University of Oklahoma Press.

Gilson, J. T. (1990). Student development: The prevailing theories and their relevance to today's student (Univ. of Mo-Ke) (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.- ED 324173).

Gooden, W. E. (1980). The adult development of Black men - Vol. 1 & 2. Dissertation Abstracts International, 41, 4283-4284B. (University Microfilms No. 8109667).

Gould, R. L. (1975). Adult life stages: Growth toward self tolerance. Psychology Today, 8 (9), 74 -78.

Harris, D. J. (1992). A cultural model for assessing the growth and development of the African-American female. Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development. New York: Prager Press.

Heath, D. H. (1980). Wanted: A comprehensive model of healthy development. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 58(5), 391-399.

Herbert, J. I. (1989). Black male entrepreneurs and adult development. New York: Prager Press.

Hill, S. (1989). The impact of mentoring and collegial support on faculty success: An analysis of support behavior, information adequacy, and communication apprehension. Communication Education, 38 (1), 5-33.

Hill-Traynham, P. K.(2000). An Afrocentric perspective toward Black student development: From theory to practice. Houston, TX: Institute for Black Student Development.

Jeffries, D. L. (1985). An exploratory study of Black adult development among forty females ages twenty to forty. Dissertation Abstract International, 46, 1563. (University Microfilms No. 85-17,418).

Jones, R.W. (1996). African-American Titans: Beyond Black rage: Adult psychosocial development of African-American entrepreneurs. Dissertation Abstracts International. (University No. 57-07B: 4057)

Jordan-Cox, C. A. (1987). Psychosocial development of students in traditionally Black institutions. Journal of College Student Personnel, 28 (6), 504-512.

Little, C. D. (1995). How seeking a higher education degree functions in late-life development. Dissertation Abstracts International, 56. (University Microfilm No. 56-08A: 2970).

Littleton, R. Jr. (1997). Understanding the nature and needs of Black doctoral students. Journal of the National Association of Student Affairs Professionals 7, (1), 10-20

Levinson, D. J., Darrow, C. N., Klein, E. B., Levinson, M. H., and McKee, B. (1978). The season of a man's life. New York, NY: Knopf.

Majors, R. And Billson, J. M. (1993). Cool Pose: The dilemmas of Black manhood in America.New York: Touchstone, Inc.

McEwen, M. K., Roper, L. D., Gryant, D. R. & Langa, M. J. (1990). Incorporation of the development of African-American students into psychosocial theories of student development. Journal of College Student Development, 31, 429-436.

Miller, T. K. & Winston, R. B. (1990). Assessing development from a psychosocial perspective. In D.G. Creamer (Ed.) Administrative and management theories: Tools for change. Atlanta. GA: Accelerated Development, inc.

Neugarten, R. L. (1969). Adult personality: Toward a psychology of the life cycle. in R. L.Neugarten (Ed.) Middle age and aging. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Oliver, W. (1989). Black males and social problems: Prevention through Afrocentric socialization. Journal of Black Studies. 20, (1), 15-39.

Riegel, K. F. (1975). Adult life crises: A dialectic interpretation of development in N. Datin and L. H. Gingerg . (Ed.) Life-Span developmental psychology.

Rufffin, J. F. (1985). An exploratory of adult development in Black professional women. Dissertation Abstracts International, 46, 1700. (University No. 85-15, 656)

Sheehy, G. (1976). Passages: Predictable causes of adult life. New York, NY: E. F. Dutton.

Simmons, P. O. (1990). A life span developmental approach toward building a theory of the elderly African-American female. Dissertation Abtracts International. (University No. 51-07B: 3593)

Schlossberg, N. K., Lynch, A. Q. and Chickering, A. W. (1989). Improving higher education environment for adults. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Vaillant, G. E. (1977). Adaption of life: How the best and brightest came of age. Boston, MA: Little Brown.

Washington, W., Goddard, R. W., and Newman, I. (1990). Pre-doctoral syndrome: Study of educational administration graduates. Paper presented at Mid-Western Education Research Association, Chicago, IL. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. - ED 326 091).

White, J. (1984). The psychology of Blacks: An Afro-American perspective. Englewood, CA: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Wright, D. J. (1987). Minority students: Developmental beginnings. In D. J. Wright (Ed.),Responding to the needs of today's minority students.San Francisco:Jossey-Bass

Wrightsman, L. S. (1988). Personality development in adulthood. Beverly Hills, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Chapter VI

The Nature and Needs of Underprepared Black College Students

To assist the Black adult students in developing their academic skills fully, academic personnel must implement theories, student services and support programs that promote the adult student's academic, social and personal (psychosocial) development (Pounds, 1987). Professionals who employ adult development theories, either in their research or in service delivery to minority students, should make efforts to understand cultural and social environmental variables as they relate to specific minority group members (Wright, 1987). Effective Black adult development cannot be successfully implemented without addressing the developmental issues of that culturally diverse student population.

The problem of attrition amongst Black college students is vastly evident. Institutions of higher learning are being challenged to find innovative ways to matriculate African-American students. Many universities have created tutorial programs for students who are at risk academically. Recent studies show that minority students enrolled in tutorial programs desired the following:

(a)acquisition of new study skills;

(b) prep talks encouraging academic success;

(c) tutorial sessions on weekends and evenings;

(d) one-to-one tutoring vs. group tutoring;

(e) assessment of their study and test-taking abilities; and

(f) workshops to address perceived academic weaknesses. (Newburger, 1999).

A growing number of colleges and universities have addressed the issue of " high attrition with summer prep programs. A summer prep program is one method that institutions utilize to

introduce and prepare underprepared student for college. Specifically, students are enrolled in a tailored program of study designed to prepare them for college level course work. One successful summer prep program is Jackson State University's Summer Developmental program. This highly successful and duplicated program employs 7 basic objectives that have proven effective: (a) test and evaluate student academic weaknesses; (b) employ developmental courses to enhance academic weakness; (c) assist students in becoming familiar with the academic programs and university policies; (d) inform students of available support services; (e) help students adjust to the academic and social college environment; (f) teach student strategies and techniques of maintain a 2.0 or better grade point average; (g) acquaint student with college faculty, staff and administrators.

Another effective method of retaining adult students is multi-racial sensitivity training sessions. The re-emergence of racism has once again prevailed as a major distraction for minorities attending predominantly White institutions. This brand of racism not only involves student to student relationships, but also faculty perceptions. Some college faculty perceive their Black college students to be troublesome. Creating a supportive environment for minorities involves more than the provision of financial aid, remedial courses and support services. Offering race and cultural sensitivity training sessions to faculty to accommodate a rapidly multicultural student body is essential.

Although the population of minority student has increased steadily on America's university and college campuses, the hiring of minority faculty and staff have yet to match the pace of influxing minority students. The continued diluting of affirmative action has facilitated the exclusion of many minority faculty on predominantly White campuses. As a result, various colleges have neglected to develop policies and strategies which promote the tenure of its minority faculty. In order for

minority students to form positive mentoring images and teacher relations, it is imperative that the makeup of the faculty and staff reflect the composition of the student body.

Facilitating the Nature and Needs of Underprepared students

The traditional methods of instruction do not always provide the most efficient means of teaching underprepared adult students (Lowery and Young, 1992; and Pascarella and Terenzini, 1995). Underprepared adult students require well trained instructors who recognize their nature, needs and learning styles. Many theorists and educators recognize that instruction must be learner-centered. Basic reading, writing, and math skills improvement have been incorporated into the thrust of most student support services by means of diagnosis, evaluation, and tutorial assistance, which are accompanied by counseling and peer support to address attitudinal and self management variables (Gose, 1997 and Yamasaki, 1998).

Instructional methods must be sensitive to individual student differences in speed of acquiring content. Colleges must employ a variety of instructional methods to facilitate the needs of the adult learner: individualized instruction, computer-assisted instruction, classroom lectures, laboratory instruction, and cooperative/collaborative instruction (Hashway, 1989; Lowery and Young, 1992; and Starks, 1994). Individualized and collaborative teaching approaches require active student involvement and participation in the teaching-learning process. Such methods encourage the student to commit greater focus and involvement in their learning. Although these methods of instruction differ in technique, they emphasize several basic principles:

1. smaller modular units of instruction,
2. student mastery of one unit before moving on to the next,
3. Periodic reporting of student's academic progress,

4. Participant learning versus passive learning (Cross, 1976; Tomlinson, 1989; and Pascarella & Terenzini, 1995)

Preparation for the underprepared students:

A considerable number of students manifest some type of weakness or deficiency in one or more subject areas, and simply require assistance in bridging the gap in a specific discipline. Historically, developmental education programs were not implemented for minority students (Bullock, Madden, and Mallery, 1990). The presence of underprepared students in American colleges has been documented since the seventeenth century. At Harvard College, tutors in Greek and Latin were provided for underprepared students. In the mid-eighteenth century, state universities had preparatory departments, those programs dubbed as "college preparatory" served many of the same goals as today's programs. In the days of the colonial college, social structure and wealth, more than ability, decided who went to college (Roberts 1986).

In 1907, more than 50 percent of the students who entered Harvard, Yale, Columbia and Princeton did not meet admission standards, and by 1915 courses had been established to address underpreparedness at 350 colleges in the nation (Maxwell 1997) continuing into the middle of the twentieth century with the establishment of the GI bill. Until the 1960s most students attending Harvard and other predominantly white institutions (PWI) were of European descent. And those universities and colleges implemented developmental education programs to ensure the success of their students. America has always implemented developmental education programs to educate its students (Roberts, 1986; Ervin and Snoyer, 1989; and Bullock, Madden and Mallery, 1990).

Seventy eight percent of the nation's colleges and universities offer at least one developmental course (The National Center for Education Statistics, 1996). Fifty-seven percent of

developmental students are women, and eighty percent are American citizens. Fewer than one third of developmental students are minorities. Of that one third, Hispanics and African-Americans occupy a substantial proportion. The vast majority of developmental students are White. (Boylan, Bonham, & Bliss, 1994; Knopp 1996; Hebel, 1997 and NCES, 2000).

Ignash (1997) stated that developmental education was not limited to "traditional" freshmen. Over 27 percent of entering freshmen in developmental courses were 30 years of age or older Among entering freshmen who took a developmental class in 1992-93, 31 percent were 19 years old or younger, while 46 percent were over 22 years of age, the traditional age of baccalaureate degree completion. Fifty-six percent of students enrolled in developmental courses were freshmen, 24 percent were sophomores, 9 percent were juniors, and 9 percent were seniors (NCES, 1996). Traditionally , developmental students share two or more of the following characteristics:

1. Not prepared by high school curriculums for college level work.
2. Adult learners returning to school.
3. Academic or [illegible]sical weakness not diagnosed in secondary school.
4. Foreigners who acquired their elementary or secondary education in a foreign country.
5. Field dependent learners.
6. Possess an external locus of control.
7. Low self-esteem and achievement motivation.
8. High scores on measures of anxiety.
9. Socio-economically disadvantaged. (Boylan, Bonham and Bliss, 1994; Knopp, 1996;

and Maxwell, 1997).

Raising admission scores would not reduce the need for Developmental Ed programs

Test validity, reliability, norming procedures and criteria used to admit students in to college are based on decisions by administrators. Specific issues include: what is proper to measure; what instruments should be used; and how measurements or assessments should be done. These decisions rest upon values which are influenced by varying sociopolitical attitudes and beliefs (Bers & Smith, 1991). Many consumer advocates, civil right organizations and educators remain concerned about bias in testing and question the predictive validity of instruments, and decry the lack of empirical evidence available on the effects of assessment procedures on ethnic minorities, women and the disabled (Lunneborg & Lunneborg, 1985; Colby and Opp,1987; Kanter,1990; & Yamasaki,1998).

If admission standards are raised, institutions may very well be excluding talented students who have scored low on some prescribed standardized test that does not give the true measure of the students' ability. Even with raised admissions standards, there will still be a need for student support programs (Hughes and Nelson, 1991 and Yamasaki, 1998). Minorities traditionally score lower on standardized tests than Whites (Adelman, 1996). Raising admission entrance scores is viewed as a direct factor in limiting educational access for numerous underprepared students. Raising standards tends to benefit those students who already perform well, but does not service those students performing poorly. Raising standards does not make a difference, if no change in teaching strategies or enrichment of learning experience are provided for underprepared students (Kanter, 1990; Hughes and Nelson, 1991; Boylan, and Bonham, and Bliss, 1994; Burd, 1996; and Healy, 1996).

There are no consistent standards for colleges admissions. Instead of national or regional standards for college admissions, students are admitted based on standardize test scores requirements by a particular institution or college board. Admission standards vary from institution to institution depending on its classification and mission (e.g., private, public, community, senior). In many instances students who test poorly on standardized tests are admitted accordingly regardless of their previous academic success. The literature suggests that admission policies vary greatly among institutions with similar missions (Kanter, 1990; Hughes and Nelson, 1991; and Healy, 1996; and Bulakowski, 1997; and IHEP, 1998).

It is not always the low-achiever who needs academic support services; gifted students, too, have recorded deficiencies in various academic levels. Critics of the secondary school system correlate the failure of underprepared students with the school system's inadequate funding, underprepared and underpaid instructors, biased administrative policies, and outdated curriculums (Colby and Opp, 1987; Starks, 1994; and Breneman and Harlow, 1998). Numerous secondary schools do not offer a college preparatory curriculum. Also, a number of instructors hail from teacher education programs that are deficient in resources, facilities, and lack a curriculum which includes multicultural awareness and counseling courses. Student support service programs address those obstacles, by teaching students at their current academic level and advancing their basic skills to college level requirements(Tomlinson, 1989; Maxwell, 1997; Boylan, Bonham, and Bliss, 1994; and Yamasaki, 1998).

Developmental education programs do not penalize students seeking a four-year degree.

There are no penalties for being enrolled in a developmental education program. The literature suggested that students who enrolled in a developmental education program seeking a

four-year degree tend to fare better than marginal students not enrolled in developmental courses. Although students may spend a semester or even a year longer at the university, they are better prepared and more likely to graduate.(Adelman, 1996; Knopp, 1996; Ignash, 1997; and IHEP, 1998).

Various institutions offer developmental courses, however several do not give degree credit for such courses. Seventy one percent of colleges and universities grant institutional credit, which determines the student's enrollment status and is recorded on the student's transcript. Eleven percent of existing developmental programs grant elective degree credits , 13 percent grant no credit, and about 5 percent grant subject degree credit. Those institutional credits were generally for developmental reading, writing, and mathematics. In general, 75 percent of students enrolled in developmental courses passed or successfully completed those courses. However, the percentage of students passing developmental courses was 10 percent lower at community colleges than at 4-year colleges (NCES, 1996).

The retention rate tends to be higher for students enrolled at four year institutions (84%) than at two year institutions (55%). Developmental students enrolled at 4-year colleges have the opportunity to embrace the full college experience, thus, their adjustment period to college life is reduced (NCES, 1996). Unlike the community college, the senior college environment generates unique academic and social demands. Developmental students are compelled to grapple with intense demands on their time: selecting a career; attending class lectures; completing assignments; and working and residing in a residential setting (Boylan, Bliss and Bonham, 1994).

Developmental education programs are theory based and structured mediums of student support services.

Developmental education is considered an organizational concept within postsecondary institutions. Developmental education is based on sound theories, practices and research. It should be implemented, evaluated and supported accordingly. Most successful developmental education programs are those that deal with the affective side of being a student. Developmental education utilizes cognitive development in the classroom and affective development through counseling, advising and orientation seminars that aid the student in adapting to the college environment (Casazza & Silverman, 1996; Cross, 1976; Starks, 1994). Underprepared students bring to the college campus a plethora of unresolved development issues: low-self esteem, lack of confidence, and high anxiety (Bonlay, Bonham and Bliss, 1994; Starks, 1994; Knopp, 1996; and Maxwell, 1997). Developmental education programs are designed to aid students in obtaining the basic skills needed to complete college level courses.

The scope of services in developmental education programs may include classroom instruction, laboratory tutorials, and self-paced activities, experiential activities on and off campus (e.g., plays, poetry readings, job training), and computer-monitored feedback on individual progress for students participating in the program (Tomlinson,1989). In general, developmental education programs utilize four basic components: (a) a mandatory assessment and placement program that uses valid and reliable instruments; (b) a curriculum design and delivery system with clearly defined goals; (c) support services that rely on multip e intervention strategies; and (d) a systematic evaluation system (Hashway, 1989; Casazza and Silverman, 1996; and Boylan, Bliss, and Bonham, 1997).

Developmental education programs are generally structured into four types of programs: college campus tutorial/remedial centers, college outreach programs, campus assistance centers and off campus assistance centers. The services of developmental education have evolved and expanded to facilitate the nature and needs of culturally diverse students. The primary goal is to provide academic assistance to underprepared students attending college. Developmental education programs are structured to provide students with academic and support services through developmental courses, tutoring, study labs, computer assisted instruction, counseling, peer support groups and orientation seminars (Hashway, 1989; Tomlinson, 1989; Casazza and Silverman, 1996; Boylan, Bliss and Bonham, 1997; and The Institute for Higher Education Policy, 1998).

Developmental education should not only be offered at community colleges.

Many educators believe that it is not a good idea to offer developmental education programs exclusively at the community college level (Jacobson, 1993; Lively,1993; Adelman, 1996; and Hebel, 1999). Community colleges enroll traditional and advanced students as well as developmental students. Although, community colleges are noted for their success with developmental students, they are overwhelmed and overburden with dilemmas: a growing transfer population, a culturally diverse student body and redefining their missions to address the needs of a changing workforce (Kanter, 1990; Jacobson, 1993; and Hebel, 1999).

It seems logical that the senior institutions would qualify as leaders in providing progressive programs of academic development. Specifically, colleges and universities maintain schools of education, counseling, and social work with professors and graduate students specializing in academic research and development (Lively, 1993, Healy, 1996; IHEP, 1998; and Hebel, 1999). The graduation rate appears to be higher for 4-year college students vs. community college students.

Developmental students at 4 year colleges graduate at a rate of 44 percent compared to a rate of 24 percent at community colleges.

Specifically, developmental students enrolled at community colleges graduated at a rate of 24 percent compared to a rate of 22 percent of their academically prepared peers. Forty percent of developmental students graduated at 4-years institutions compared to 48 percent at research institutions. The literature opined that developmental students tend to graduate at rates equivalent to their better prepared peers (NCES, 1996).

If standardized test scores remain the sole source for placement of developmental students, the students who would be disproportionately referred to community colleges would be women, returning adults, Hispanics and Blacks (Lively, 1993; Healy, 1996; and Hebel, 1999). Education critics suggested the aforementioned criteria standards would only increase the number of minorities warehoused at community colleges and reduced their likelihood of attending a four-year college. There is a general pattern of higher developmental enrollments and lower developmental pass rates at community colleges than at 4-year colleges (NCES, 1996). This trend only heightens the continuing spiral of educational, economical, gender and racial disparities amongst minorities.

Developmental personnel are professionally trained personnel.

Developmental educators and counselors are trained in theories, pedagogy and diversity. Educators are sensitized to the nature and needs of the clientele they teach. Effective developmental education is facilitated by well-trained personnel. Successful developmental education programs are staffed by professionals who know, who understand, and who base their actions on that body of research and literature. They regularly attend workshops and seminars to keep up to date on current trends and issues in the field. Possessing an advanced degree does not necessarily qualify an

instructor to teach developmental students. It takes more than subject knowledge; it takes knowledge of developmental students and how they learn (Boylan, Bliss & Bonham 1997; Maxwell 1997).

Developmental counselors encourage students to ask thought provoking questions regarding their academic studies, and utilize campus resources to research the solutions. Developmental counselors are responsible for assisting students in selecting their courses of study and scheduling their class schedules around the outcomes of their career aspirations. Counselors are trained to work with developmental students to: (a) evaluate and assess their development goals and needs; (b) assist in determining appropriate academic and career objectives and experiences; (c) design and implement programs and activities which foster development; and (d) evaluate and document academic progress and personal development
(Meyers, 1996; Habley and Morales, 1998; and Yamasaki, 1998) .

In particular, developmental educators and counselors seek to develop academic talents, stimulate the individual's learning process, and assist students in replacing poor study habits with effective student habits. Such programs also embody a content that optimizes the learning experience for the student by using methods and materials that challenge and provoke curiosity and are also in congruence with the student's general ability level and their socio-cultural identity (Tomlinson, 1989, p.70). Developmental students are in need of (interdisciplinary) instruction that will develop their ability to engage in critical thinking and creative problem solving that can carry them beyond the basic skills exams and beyond core course levels (Lowery and Young, 1992; Starks, 1994; Pascarella and Terenzini, 1995).

The Role and Purpose of Developmental Education

In summary, the concept of developmental education is not an outdated, ineffective means of educating today's underprepared students. Developmental education is a vital component in higher education institutions' endeavors to prepare underpreparded students for college level course work. The research literature reported that since the seventeenth century, students have attended college underprepared and developmental education programs were implemented to ensure their success. There are no consistent standards on what constitutes "college level" work. It is not always the low-achiever who needs developmental courses, gifted students too, manifest some type of weakness or deficiency in one or more academic levels, and simply require assistance in bridging the gap. Although developmental students may spend additional time pursuing their degree, according to the literature, they are better prepared and more likely to graduate.

The basic purpose of developmental education is to accept students at their current level of academic development and prepare them for college level courses. In order to advance students' academic progress to the required college level, developmental education programs supply the services of academic advising, testing and placement, basic skill studies, counseling, computer-assisted instruction labs, tutoring and orientation. However, the means used to facilitate those efforts remain a constant source of undeserved criticism. Developmental education has been reputed for prolonging the length of time in obtaining a baccalaureate degree, diluting the prestige of higher education, operating inefficiently and ineffectively, and servicing only minority students. The research literature suggests these myths and others are unfounded and without merit. Furthermore, the literature opined that developmental education programs : (1) are cost efficient and effective; (2) are structured and theory based ; (3) serve culturally diverse students; and (4) support the mission

of colleges and universities. Institutions of higher learning enrolling underprepared students would be wise to adapt a structured approach to facilitate the nature and needs of its clientele. Developmental education remains the best structured approach to educating underprepared students and its services continue to be efficient, effective and essential.

Summary

External factors often have a more notable influence on student learning than academic experiences. Environmental factors affect both student learning and personal development. Successful student retention programs address the development of "the whole student" in terms of psychosocial, affective and cognitive domains. The total impact on the student's cognitive, affective and psychosocial development may depend on the student's level of campus involvement. Both academic and institutional environments contribute to what students gain from college (Penn,1993).

Colleges must remain sensitive to the socio-cultural background that the individual student brings to the educational environment, particularly, in terms of personal, interpersonal, affective and cognitive domains. Successful college academic programs employ a multidimensional, interdisciplinary approach to improve the academic preparedness of its clientele. The adult student is often one who possesses the basic skill level, but has reached a temporary obstacle caused by their knowledge base and new information they're expected to learn on a timely basis. Colleges must address those obstacles, by instructing students at their current academic level and preparing them for the requirements of college level course work.

The key to enhancing learning and personal development is to create conditions that motivate and inspire students to devote time and energy to educational purposeful activities, both inside and outside the classroom. Student satisfaction with the collegiate experience, and the

resulting identification of the student with the institution, are often related to the integration of formal classroom activities with campus co-curricular activities. Retention rates improve through systematic, orchestrated, and combined efforts of faculty and student affairs' staff having common goals and working together (Schroeder, 1999 & Penn, 1993).

References

Adelman, C.(1996, October 4). The truth about remedial work. Chronicle of Higher Education. (website:chronicle.com/che-data/articles.dir/articles-43.dir/ issue-06 .dir/31a05601.htm).

Bers, T.H. & Smith, K.E. (1991). Assessing assessment programs: The theory and practice of examining reliability and validity of a writing placement test, Community College Review, 18 (3). 17-27.

Boylan, H., Bliss, L., & Bonham, B. (1997). Program components and their relationships to student performance. Journal of Developmental Education, 20 (3), 2-9.

Boylan, H., Bonham, B., & Bliss, L. (1994). Who are the developmental students? Research in Developmental Education, 11(2), 1-4.

Breneman, D.W., & Haarlow, W. N. (1998). Remediation in higher education. Washington, DC: Thomas B. Fordham Foundation

Bullock, T.L., Madden, D.A., and Mallery, A.L. (1990). Developmental education in American universities: Past, present, and future. Research and Teaching in Developmental Education. 6, (2)

Burd. S. (1996, April 12). Colleges fear lawmakers will cut funds for remedial students. Chronicle of Higher Education, (website:chronicle.com/che-data/articles.dir/articles-42.dir/ issue-31 .dir/31a03801.htm).

Casazza, M., & Silverman, S. (1996). Learning assistance and developmental education. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Colby, A., and Opp, R. (1987). Controversies surrounding developmental education **in** community colleges. (Report No. JC870428). California,US: (Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED 286557).

Cross, K. (1976). Accent on learning. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Erwin, R. And Snoyer, J. (1989). Can colleges without developmental education programs survive? Research and Teaching and Developmental Education. 6, (1).

Gose, B. (1997, Sept 19).Tutoring companies take over remedial teaching at some colleges. Chronicle of Higher Education. (website:chronicle.com/che-data/articles.dir/art-44.dir/issue-19/04a04401.htm).

Habley, W.R., and Morales, R. (1998). Current practices in Academic Advising. Kansas City, KS: Nacada.

Hashway, R. (1989). Developmental learning centers designs. Research and Teaching in Developmental Education 5, (2)

Healy, P. (1996, July 12). Mississippi colleges await results of new admissions standards. Chronicle of Higher Education, (website:chronicle.com/che-data/articles.dir/articles-42.dir/issue - 44.dir /44a03001.htm).

Hebel, S. (1999, April 4) Georgia strives to raise standards without leaving students behind. Chronicle of Higher Education, (website:chronicle.com/weekly/v45/i31/35a03401.htm).

Hebel, S. (1999, April 4). As need for remediation grows, 2-year colleges must fill the gap, officials agree. Chronicle of Higher Education. (website:chronicle.com/ weekly/ v46 /i16/16a03601.htm).

Hebel, S. (1999, December 10).In CUNY remediation debate, the numbers--and the strategy are in dispute. Chronicle of Higher Education. (website:chronicle.com/weekly/ v45/i31/35a03401.htm).

Hughes, R. E. and Nelson, C. H. (1991) .Placement scores and placement practices and empiral analysis, Community College Review, 19, (1). 42-49.

Ignash, J. M. (1997). Who should provide postsecondary remedial/developmental education? In J. Ignash, (Ed.) Implementing Effective Policies for Remedial and Developmental Education. New Directions for Community Colleges, No. 100. San Francisco: Jossey- Bass Publishers.

The Institute for Higher Education Policy. (1998) College remediation: What it is, what it cost, and what's at stake. Washington, DC: The Ford Foundation.

Jacobson, R.L. (1993, July 21). Challenges for community colleges. Chronicle of Higher Education. (website:chronicle.com/che-data/articles.dir/articles-39.dir/issue-46.dir/46a 01501.htm).

Kanter, M. J. (1990). Is placement a barrier to access for under represented students in community college? Community College Week, 2 (18), 10-11.

Knopp, L. (1996). Remedial education: An undergraduate student profile. American Council on Education: Research Briefs, 6 (8),1-11.

Lively, K. (1995, March 31). Ready or not. Chronicle of Higher Education. (website:chronicle.com/che-data/articles.dir/articles-41.dir/issue-29.dir/29a02301.htm).

Lively, K. (1993, February 24). States try to end remedial courses at 4-year colleges. Chronicle of Higher Education, (website:chronicle.com/che-data/articles.dir/articles-39.dir/issue-25.dir/25a02801.htm).

Lowery, B.R. and Young, P.B. (1992). Designing motivational instruction for developmental education. Research and Teaching in Developmental Education. 9, (1).

Lunneborg, P., & Lunneborg, C.E. (1985). Student-centered versus university-centered solutions to problems of minority students. Journal of College Student Personnel 26 (3), 251-252

Maxwell, M. (1997). Improving student learning skills. Clearwater, FL: H&H Publishing .

Meyer, M.D. (1996). Teacher preparation in developmental education: From a standing stall to a running start. Journal of Research and Teaching in Developmental Education. 13, (1).

Millian, J. (1997, Jan 17).Remedial-education program in Texas faces uncertain future. Chronicle of Higher Education. (website:chronicle.com/che-data/articles.dir/articles-43.dir/issue-13.dir/19a03504.htm).

National Center for Education Statistics. (1996).Remedial education in higher education institutions in the fall 1995. NCES 97-584, By Laurie Lewis and Elizabeth Farris. Bernie Greene, project officer. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

National Center for Education Statistics. (2000). The context of postsecondary education: faculty characteristics. The Condition of Education 2000. NCES 97-470, Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, (website:nces.ed.gov / pub.2000 / coe2000 /section5 / indicator57.htm).

Newburger, J.C. (1999). Executive board position paper research and recommendation for developmental education and /or learning assistance programs in the state of New York. Research and Teaching in Developmental Education. 16, (1).

Pascarella, E.T., & Terenzini, P.T. (1995). The impact of college on students: Myths, and some other things that may not be true. NACADA Journal. 15 (2), 26-33 .

Penn, J. R. (1993). Unifying student and academic affairs: The failure of "student development." College Student Affairs Journal, 13, 17-23 .

Pounds, A. W. (1987). Black students' needs on predominantly White campuses. In D.J. Wright (Ed.) Responding to the needs of today's minority students. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Roberts, G.H. (1986) . Developmental education: A historical study. (Report No. HE-01-99-15). Louisiana, US: (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 276 395).

Schroeder, C.C. (1999). Forging educational partnerships that advance student learning.In G.S. Blimling & E.J. Whitt (Eds.) Good practice in student affairs: Principles to foster student learning, (pp. 136-156) San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Starks, G. (1994). Retention and developmental education: What the research has to say. In M. Maxwell (Ed.). From access to success. Clearwater, FL: H&H Publishing.

Tomlinson, L. (1989). Postsecondary developmental programs: A traditional agenda with new imperatives.report No. 3. Washington, DC: School of Education and Human Development. The George Washington University.

Weissman, J., Silk, E., & Bulakowski, C. (1997). Assessing developmental education Policies. Research in Higher Education, 38 (2) 187-200 .

Wright, D. J. (1987). Minority students: Developmental beginnings. In D. J. Wright (Ed.), Responding to the needs of today's minority students. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Yamasaki, E. (1998). Effective policies for remedial education. (Report No. JC980144). California,US: (Eric Document Reproduction Service No. ED 416940).

Chapter VII

Summary

In summary, the institutions of higher education must acknowledge the need for a change in their implementation of student services. Colleges and universities throughout the country have experienced an expanding influx of culturally diverse students to their campuses. In order to fully educate students of culturally diverse backgrounds, American universities are challenged to offer education that reflects the learning styles, interest, and psychosocial needs of their students' culture (Mable, 1980; Hughes, 1987; Gilson, 1990; Steward et al., 1990; and Gill, 1991).

The preceding chapters discussed the purposes of psychosocial development and its roles in developing the college student. The vast majority of psychosocial development research focused on the nature of male development and suggested a need to research the development of females. Payton (1985) noted women's development when recognized by early developmental researchers tended to be viewed from a narrow perspective and was often judged as being abnormal because it did not adhere to male patterns. As a result, certain gender differences should be noted for special attention when focusing on the developmental progress of minority women (Miller, 1988).

Nontraditional students in most programs for the study of higher education are part-time students. These students usually work outside the program in either full-time or part-time capacities and commute to late afternoon or evening classes (Payne and Sulley, 1992). Many of the nation's college and university students are increasingly part-time and diverse. Cross (1981) suggested the majority of students, who attend college on a part-time basis, have multiple commitments outside of their program of study. University and college administrators should acknowledge those "outside commitments" when designing and evaluating college practices (Schlossberg, Lynch, and Chickering,

1989).

The demands of college exceed those of the typical eight-hour day (Halleck, 1976). Many married couples reported an overall lack of time together as hampering effective and meaningful communication. Also, the responsibilities of caring for children appear to have a time restricting affect on the married adult student. Time commitments, role conflicts, financial obligations, and the added responsibilities of parenting may work against everyone's psychosocial well-being (Giles, 1983).

The returning adult group, represented by increasing numbers of adult learners or minority college students over the age of 25 years, reflects a population that experiences considerably different developmental needs and tasks than those of students of traditional college age (Cross, 1981; Schlossberg, Lynch, and Chickering, 1989). Because these nontraditional students are at different developmental levels, it is important that psychosocial assessment strategies and instrumentation be geared to the special characteristics and life patterns of these different age cohorts (Creamer, 1990).

Given the cultural diversity of students in college today, academic personnel must note and recognize how the different entry variables interact with the college environment to affect psychosocial development differentially (McEwen et al., 1990). In order to better facilitate the students' psychosocial development, America's colleges and universities must implement "effective" models and methods to embrace the students' culturally diverse needs (Wright, 1987). Institutions of higher learning that adapt their student development policies and services to address the developmental tasks of the Black adult students will benefit from both increased recruitment and retention of nontraditional students (Hughes, 1982). What results will be a system that not only

addresses the nature and needs of adult students, but also provides improved and humanized delivery of related services and programs.

Special student services (e.g., tutoring, counseling, child day care) increase opportunities for advancement for culturally diverse groups by targeting students who have experienced the psychosocial barriers of societal racism, lack of access to social resources, and inadequate educational preparation during their lifetime (Schockett, 1988). Academic programs should be concerned with those personal psychological orientation aspects of the student and the relationships that exist between the student, the college environment and society. Academic programs must provide students with internships in their perspective fields, include students in a broader range of research activities, and create more interdisciplinary options in academic disciplines.

An understanding of adult student development is instrumental in addressing the academic needs of Black college students. These and other related activities should help to decrease the time students spend earning a degree, increase completion rates, and generally improve the quality of the collegiate experience. In summary, the following services have been instrumental in addressing the needs of Black adult students: (a) flexible child day care services; (b) parenting workshops; (c) commuter services; (d) flexible housing arrangements (on and off campus); (e) mentor resources; (f) special adult orientation services; (g) peer mentoring programs; (h) peer tutoring programs; (I) seminars on computer skills; (j) seminars on stress management; (k) a wellness (exercise) program for adults; (l) discussions on financial aid; (m) study skills management; (n) learning styles awareness seminars; (o) seminars on campus culture; (p) peer social meetings; (q) adult oriented entertainment activities and events.

References

Cross, K. P. (1981). Adults as learners. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Creamer, D. G. (1990). Administrative and management theories: Tools for change. Atlanta, GA: Accelerated Development, Inc.

Giles, F. (1983). The effects of doctoral study on marriage and family: An ethnographic study. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American College Personnel Association, Houston, TX.

Gill, W. (1991). Issues in African-American education. Nashville: Einston-Derek Publishers, Inc.

Gilson, J. T. (1990). Student development: The prevailing theories and their relevance to today's students (Univ. of Mo-Ke) (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.-ED 324173).

Halleck, S. L. (1976). Emotional problems of the graduate student. In J. Katz & T. Hartnett (Eds.), Scholars in the making. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.

Hughes, M. S. (1987). Black students participation in higher education. Journal of College Student Personnel, 27, 532-545.

Hughes, R. (1982). The nontraditional student in higher education: A synthesis of the literature. NASPA Journal, 17(2), 51-64.

McEwen, M. K., Roper, L. D., Gryant, D. R. & Langa, M. J. (1990). Incorporation of the development of African-American students into psychosocial theories of student development. Journal of College Student Development, 31, 429-436.

Payne, B. D. and Sulley, B. A. (1992). Traditional vs non-traditional students: A new era. National Forum of Applied Educational Research Journal, 6(1), 68-74.

Payton, C. R. (1985). Addressing the special needs of minority women. In Evans, N.J. (Ed.) Facilitating the development of women. New Directions for Student Services. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schlossberg, N. K., Lynch, A. Q. and Chickering, A. W. (1989). Improving higher education environment for adults. San Francicso, CA: Jossey-Bass

Schokett, M. R. (1988). Factor analytic support for psychosocial and vocational mentoring functions. Psychological Reports, 57, 627-630.

Steward, R. J., Jackson, Sr., R. and Jackson, J. D. (1990). Alienation and international styles in a predominantly White environment. Journal of College Student Personnel, 31, 509-515.

Wright, D. J. (1987). Minority students: Developmental beginnings. In D. J. Wright (Ed.), Responding to the needs of today's minority students. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bibliography

Dr. Roosevelt Littleton, Jr. a veteran administrator in the field of Student Affairs, has an acquired knowledge and awareness of various student development theories and programs proposed to aid the development of today's students. He has developed a record of achievement in positions requiring interpersonal communications, counseling, leadership and management skills. He has published several scholarly articles on the development of; At-risk students, nontraditional students, doctoral students and adult learners.

Dr. Littleton subscribes to the following student development philosophy;" All students should be given the benefit of an educational program designed to suit their circumstances, their capabilities, their ethnic identities; plus they should be encourage to develop to the best of their potentialities. All programs, courses, and support services, therefore, are of equal importance. The educational environment should provide for the development of critical thinking. Our goal should be to prepare students to meet the challenges of life courageously and to solve problems intelligently".

Dr. Littleton, recipient of the Patricia Roberts Harris Fellowship, earned the doctorate degree in Developmental Education - Student Development and Personnel Services from Grambling State University in 1994. The Jackson, Mississippi native received the Master of Science in Education degree in Educational Technology (1982) and Bachelor of Science Degree in Mass Communications-Television and

Radio Production (1981) at Jackson State University. In addition he earned the Associate of Applied Science in Commercial Design and Advertising (1979) at Hinds Community College.

The NASAP President currently holds membership in the following organizations: NASAP- National Association of Student Affairs Professionals, NABSE -National Alliance of Black School Educators; PHI DELTA KAPPA, NADE-National Association of Developmental Educators; and NAFEO-National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education.

U.S. Department of Education
Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI)
National Library of Education (NLE)
Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)

ERIC®

REPRODUCTION RELEASE

(Specific Document)

I. DOCUMENT IDENTIFICATION:

Title: Understanding And Retaining Underprepared College Students	
Author(s): Dr. Roosevelt Littleton, Jr	
Corporate Source:	Publication Date: 5/03

II. REPRODUCTION RELEASE:

In order to disseminate as widely as possible timely and significant materials of interest to the educational community, documents announced in the monthly abstract journal of the ERIC system, *Resources in Education* (RIE), are usually made available to users in microfiche, reproduced paper copy, and electronic media, and sold through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). Credit is given to the source of each document, and, if reproduction release is granted, one of the following notices is affixed to each document.

If permission is granted to reproduce and disseminate the identified documents, please CHECK ONE of the following three options and sign at the bottom of the page.

The sample sticker shown below will be affixed to all Level 1 documents

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

_____

_____

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

1

Level 1 ☐

Check here for Level 1 release, permitting reproduction and dissemination in microfiche or other ERIC archival media (e.g., electronic) *and* paper copy.

The sample sticker shown below will be affixed to all Level 2A documents

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE, AND IN ELECTRONIC MEDIA FOR ERIC COLLECTION SUBSCRIBERS ONLY, HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

_____

_____

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

2A

Level 2A ☒

Check here for Level 2A release, permitting reproduction and dissemination in microfiche and in electronic media for ERIC archival collection subscribers only

The sample sticker shown below will be affixed to all Level 2B documents

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

_____

_____

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

2B

Level 2B ☐

Check here for Level 2B release, permitting reproduction and dissemination in microfiche only

Documents will be processed as indicated provided reproduction quality permits.
If permission to reproduce is granted, but no box is checked, documents will be processed at Level 1.

I hereby grant to the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) nonexclusive permission to reproduce and disseminate these documents as indicated above. Reproduction from the ERIC microfiche or electronic media by persons other than ERIC employees and its system contractors requires permission from the copyright holder. Exception is made for non-profit reproduction by libraries and other service agencies to satisfy information needs of educators in response to discrete inquiries.

Sign here, → please

Signature: R. Littleton Jr	Printed Name/Position/Title: Dean of Student Affairs Dr. Roosevelt Littleton Jr
Organization/Address: P.O Box 166676 Little Rock, AR 72216	Telephone: 501-312-4955 FAX:
	E-Mail Address: ROOSEVELTL@HOTMAIL.COM Date: 7-1-03

III. DOCUMENT AVAILABILITY INFORMATION (FROM NON-ERIC SOURCE):

If permission to reproduce is not granted to ERIC, *or*, if you wish ERIC to cite the availability of these documents from another source, please provide the following information regarding the availability of these documents. (ERIC will not announce a document unless it is publicly available, and a dependable source can be specified. Contributors should also be aware that ERIC selection criteria are significantly more stringent for documents that cannot be made available through EDRS.)

Publisher/Distributor:
Address:
Price:

IV. REFERRAL OF ERIC TO COPYRIGHT/REPRODUCTION RIGHTS HOLDER:

If the right to grant this reproduction release is held by someone other than the addressee, please provide the appropriate name and address:

Name:
Address:

V. WHERE TO SEND THIS FORM:

Send this form to the following ERIC Clearinghouse:

ERIC Counseling & Student Services
University of North Carolina at Greensboro
201 Ferguson Building
PO Box 26171
Greensboro, NC 27402-6171